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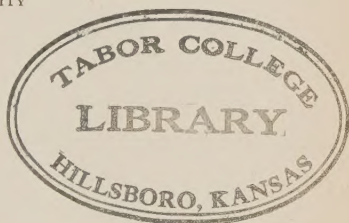
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# THE ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION OF THE HIGH SCHOOL

BY

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## PREFACE

The material in this book has as its background the author's experience during a considerable number of years as principal of secondary schools, including a public high school and a coeducational private school in New England and a boys' boarding school and a coeducational day school conducted by The University of Chicago, followed by five years of close supervisory relationship with the secondary schools of Teachers College, Columbia University. In its present form it has been organized for courses in high-school administration given by the author during a period of ten years in the School of Education of The University of Chicago and in Teachers College, Columbia University. The material for such a course is for the most part scattered through a wide range of journals and the proceedings of various associations. It has never before been brought together in a single book for the use of classes or for the reading of the principal in service. It is hoped that the present volume will be found serviceable for both these purposes.

Whatever unity the book possesses is based upon the principle of use. The topics selected and the manner of their presentation have excluded theoretical considerations except so far as these are regarded as essential to sound practice. Concrete illustrations and suggestions for definite procedure are based on the author's experience or are drawn from the practice of other principals. The problems and questions at the end of each chapter are intended to stimulate thought, whether the book is used as a text or for private reading. The bibliographies are carefully selected with a view to their usefulness in connection with each chapter and to their accessibility for the reader.



High-school principals need to be skillful administrators of school routine, but they need even more to see the larger aims which give unity and meaning to their manifold tasks. The writer craves for high-school principals that administrative imagination, founded on sound professional principles, which will enable them to capitalize their abounding zeal and energy for the development of the untold possibilities of the secondary school in this generation.

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# CONTENTS

	PAGE
CHAPTER I. THE HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPAL. . . . .	I
The responsible leader of the schools. Responsible for the direction of all its activities: curricula and courses of study, instruction, routine administration, social activities. Delegation of details of administration.	
CHAPTER II. AIMS OF SECONDARY EDUCATION . . . . .	14
Historical development of secondary school. Aims: health, vocational training, social coöperation, worthy use of leisure.	
CHAPTER III. THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL AND THE HIGH SCHOOL . . . . .	26
Origin of the elementary and high schools. Lack of coördination. Elimination of waste. The junior high school: aims, advantages claimed, objections urged, organization, dangers to be avoided.	
CHAPTER IV. THE HIGH SCHOOL AND THE COLLEGE . . . . .	42
Administrative relationships. College-admission requirements. Standard units. Methods of securing admission to college: examination, old and new plans, the psychological test, the certificate, the examination and certificate methods contrasted. Character qualifications of students. Standardizing organizations: North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, College Entrance Examination Board. The junior college.	
CHAPTER V. THE SECONDARY-SCHOOL STAFF . . . . .	70
Training of teachers. Age, tenure, and salary. Selection of teachers. Training and selection of principals. Rating and promotion of teachers.	
CHAPTER VI. THE PRINCIPAL AND HIS TEACHING STAFF . . . . .	86
Four important principles. Organization of the faculty. Assistant principal. Dean of girls. Departmental organization. Group advisers. Committees. Faculty meetings.	

	PAGE
CHAPTER VII. THE HIGH-SCHOOL PUPIL . . . . .	106
<p>High-school enrollment. Distribution by sex, grades, age. Elimination from school. Pupils completing the secondary school. Characteristics of pupils: theories of development, individual differences, — physical, mental, social.</p>	
CHAPTER VIII. DISCIPLINARY CONTROL . . . . .	128
<p>Aims of discipline. Three underlying principles. Methods of discipline: positive, corrective. Pupil self-government. Principles of corrective discipline. Undesirable or doubtful methods. Desirable methods.</p>	
✓ CHAPTER IX. THE EXTRA-CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES . . . . .	150
<p>Principles of organization: participation and control. Specific policies. Forms of extra-classroom activities: assemblies, athletics, honor societies, the school council, discussion clubs, social-service activities, parties.</p>	
CHAPTER X. TRAINING IN ETHICAL CHARACTER . . . . .	174
<p>The present situation in the high school: its causes, the school's responsibility. Aims of moral training. Methods of moral training. The case method: personal responsibility, property rights, good sportsmanship, regard for truth, cleanness of speech.</p>	
CHAPTER XI. THE PRINCIPAL'S RELATIONS TO THE COMMUNITY . . . . .	198
<p>Contacts with parents. The parents' association: three functions. Relations with the community at large. Publicity.</p>	
CHAPTER XII. THE SCHOOL PLANT . . . . .	210
<p>The principal and new-building projects. Standards for buildings and grounds. Important considerations in the planning and maintenance of school plants: health, serviceability, æsthetic qualities. Maintenance of the plant. Janitor service: qualifications, selection, and training of janitors. Cleaning school buildings. Heating and ventilation. The principal and the janitor. Standards for janitor service.</p>	
CHAPTER XIII. THE SCHEDULE OF RECITATIONS . . . . .	230
<p>Preliminary steps. Determining factors. Block and mosaic methods of making the schedule. Pupils' schedules.</p>	



# CONTENTS

vii

	PAGE
CHAPTER XIV. BLANK FORMS AND RECORDS . . . . .	246
Four guiding principles. Classification and description of blanks.	
CHAPTER XV. THE MARKING SYSTEM . . . . .	279
Variability of marks. The purpose of marks. What marks represent. The achievement quotient. The distribution of marks. The marking scale. Assignment of marks. Varying credit based on quality of work.	
CHAPTER XVI. THE HIGH-SCHOOL LIBRARY . . . . .	303
Location and capacity. Equipment. Organization and control. The librarian. Use of the library. Library instruction. The teaching staff and the library. The library as a social center. The library as a study hall. Financial support. The public library and the school.	
CHAPTER XVII. CURRICULA AND COURSES OF STUDY . . . . .	321
Content of the curriculum determined by social use and individual need. Organization of material of instruction. The principal's problem. Six principles of curriculum-making. Junior high-school curriculum. Senior-high-school curriculum. Curriculum of the four-year high school. Group-sequence method of organization.	
CHAPTER XVIII. SUPERVISION OF INSTRUCTION . . . . .	339
Five elements of a program of supervision: time for supervision, technique of teaching, technique of supervision, coöperation of teachers, testing of results. Checking list for supervision.	
CHAPTER XIX. SUPERVISED STUDY . . . . .	360
Administration of supervised study. Methods of supervised study. Study helps. Results. A working program.	
CHAPTER XX. TESTING AND THE IMPROVEMENT OF INSTRUCTION . . . . .	379
Purpose of testing. Types of tests: general-intelligence and educational tests for prognosis or diagnosis. Standards for tests. Use of intelligence tests. Form and content of educational tests. Administration of educational tests. Scoring papers.	
INDEX . . . . .	397



# THE ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION OF THE HIGH SCHOOL

## CHAPTER I

### THE HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

The rapid expansion of the high school in the number of pupils and in the scope of its activities has made inevitable a change in the conception of the responsibilities of the principal and the manner in which he may most effectively spend his time. The principal was once a teacher among teachers, who, in addition to his teaching, carried certain responsibilities and performed certain additional duties which justified the larger salary which he received. This conception of the function of the principal still persists to a considerable degree. In smaller high schools the principal usually carries a fairly heavy teaching-program, and in some large city schools he teaches one or more classes daily. However, with the increasing complexity of the organization of the school, the principal has been forced gradually to transfer his activity from the classroom to the office, where, in his swivel chair, he has become buried in the multitude of administrative details that grow out of his relations with pupils, parents, teachers, superintendent and school board, and the general community. In this confusing whirl most principals find themselves at the present time. Although they are exceedingly busy, it is not surprising that many, perhaps most, are ineffective to a greater or less degree when the larger aims of the school are considered. To meet ade-



quately the demands which now confront him it is important that the principal have in mind certain fundamental guiding principles. Only thus can he determine the relative value of the tasks which surround him and demand his attention. Three such principles for the administration of the high school are presented in this chapter.

**I. The principal is the responsible leader of the school.** As a responsible leader, the principal (1) should have a clear conception of the aims of secondary education and should see that his teachers understand these aims and are guided by them in the performance of their several duties; (2) he should organize the formal routine and the more informal social activities of the school to develop in the pupils right ideals, attitudes, and habits of work and of conduct which will be effective in mature life; (3) he should have intimate knowledge of the work of the lower schools from which his pupils come and should see that the work of the high school and that of the elementary school are closely coördinated; (4) he should be acquainted with the requirements for admission and the character of the higher institutions which will be entered by those pupils whose education will continue beyond the high school; (5) he should see to it that parents have such an understanding of the general aims of the work and discipline of the school as will secure their active coöperation in securing the fulfillment of these aims and in promoting the further development of the school; (6) he should keep the superintendent and board of education informed of the achievements of his school and should make constructive recommendations for its improvement whenever their approval or coöperation is necessary to bring about the improvements desired.

1. Of these five specific responsibilities of the principal as leader, the first is of paramount importance. Choice of materials suitable for instruction and methods of instruction and discipline are dependent upon the aims set up as desirable. Without clearly defined and understood aims the work of the

school is determined by choice or traditional practice and lacks the unity essential to its highest efficiency. It is safe to say that in most schools no such statement of aims has been formulated. The principal should meet his responsibility for leadership in this regard not by executive pronouncement. He is no Moses to bring down the tables of the law from the mountain top. In the smaller school through a committee of teachers, in the larger school through a council of his department heads, he should secure the extended discussion and deliberate formulation of aims which will represent various points of view besides his own. A later discussion and the final adoption by the entire faculty will bring these aims clearly before the teachers and will make them vitally effective throughout the school. It is also important that each department should formulate its own specific aims, consistent with the general aims set up for the school as a whole. These departmental aims might well be presented in a report to the entire faculty for criticism and suggestion. A series of meetings devoted to the discussion of such reports would contribute greatly to the professional growth of the entire staff, would bring about a better understanding of the relationships in the work of the different departments, and would make for greater unity in effort and accomplishment.

2. The principal's responsibility for leadership in social control, both in the formal routine and discipline and in the more informal social activities of the school, is related closely to the discussion of the previous paragraph. A broad statement of the aims of the high school cannot omit this important phase of school life and its possibilities for the development of ideals, attitudes, and habits which will be socially valuable in mature life. The methods of control, usually spoken of as discipline, should grow out of a clear conception of ends to be attained. The social life of the school in the form of clubs, athletics, and other types of extra-classroom activities should be so organized and controlled as to contribute to the achievement of

definite and worthy social ends. The contribution which the school can make through these agencies to the training of its pupils will depend almost wholly upon the quality of the aims and the degree in which they are understood and made effective throughout the entire school. Here, also, the principal will best meet his responsibility for leadership by securing the formulation of standards through group discussion. Moreover, as the intelligent coöperation of the pupils, as well as that of the teachers, is essential in attaining these aims, he should secure through the school council or other representative groups an understanding and acceptance by the pupils of the social aims and standards of the school.

3. The transition from the elementary school to the high school, with the attendant changes in subject matter and methods of instruction and discipline, has been responsible for tremendous waste in our system of public schools. The lack of acquaintance on the part of high-school teachers with the work of the elementary schools has been responsible for an unnecessary break in the progressive development of the pupils. It is customary for teachers of first-year classes in the high school to complain of the lack of preparation which their pupils have received in the lower schools, while they themselves have little definite knowledge of what their pupils have or have not been taught or of the manner in which instruction has been given. This situation results in a diminished effectiveness of instruction in the high school and an increased elimination of pupils. One of the reasons for the establishment of the junior high schools has been the expectation that it would make for a more coherent organization of the work at this period of greatest waste. The principal should himself be acquainted with the material and methods of the upper grades of the elementary schools and should see to it that the early work of the high school is conducted in such a way as to secure a sequential development at the period of transition to the higher school. The principal should conduct conferences



of his teachers of first-year classes for the purpose of acquainting them with the work of the lower schools and of securing a better adjustment of high-school instruction to the needs of first-year pupils. It would be advantageous to secure the participation of principals or teachers of the upper grades of the elementary schools in these conferences.

4. It is much more important that the principal should be acquainted with the work of the elementary school than with that of the college. On the whole, however, he has usually thought more of the latter. The curriculum and content of high-school courses have been influenced all too much by college requirements. It is still important that the principal should have complete knowledge of the requirements of higher institutions in order to meet the needs of the very considerable number who will continue their education beyond the high school. He should also know enough about the character of the different colleges to advise pupils in their choice. There are voluntary associations of schools and colleges in the different parts of the country, and secondary-school conferences are held at the various state universities and many private institutions. The principal should avail himself of these opportunities for keeping informed on all matters that are involved in the relationship of the secondary school and the college. He should also give to college officers such personal information as will assist them in dealing with each pupil who goes on from his school and should follow up the work of each pupil, at least during his first year in college, both for the purpose of discovering how well the work of his school prepares for the higher institution and for the help that he may be able to give his pupils in their adjustment to college work.

5. The fact that the school is an agency through which society undertakes to secure its own perpetuation and advancement places upon the principal the need of considering his relations to the community as a whole and to various

groups and individuals outside the pupils and teachers of his school. The principal's first responsibility is within his school, and to its internal organization and direction he must devote himself primarily; but if his interests and activities stop at this point, he will fall short of the achievement of the highest success. The most natural point of contact is with the parents of his pupils, and with these he will have relations of a more or less personal nature. The wise principal will strive to develop among the parents such an understanding of, and sympathy with, the aims and methods of his school as will secure their active coöperation and support. He should himself conceive of the school as a coöperative enterprise in which teachers and parents are engaged in securing certain desirable ends for children, and he should take every possible measure to secure this conception on the part of parents. He should not think of himself, nor should he allow the community to think of him, as an employee hired simply to administer certain prescribed treatment, disciplinary and instructional, to a group of children within the school building during an eight-hour day.

In contrast with the smaller community, the complex social life of a large city renders it more difficult in some respects for the principal to meet his responsibility in this regard. However, the wide variation in social experience and vocational needs represented by the pupils of a large city high school greatly increases the importance of the principal's leadership in this particular. In whatever community the principal finds himself he should study the characteristic social conditions and needs of his pupils and endeavor in appropriate ways to secure increased coöperation between the school and the community in meeting these needs.

6. In his relations to the superintendent and board of education the principal has not met his responsibility when he has complied with the formal requirements which are prescribed from above. His intimate acquaintance with the problems of secondary education as presented by his own school places

upon him the responsibility for influencing, through proper channels, those who are in charge of the larger policies of the entire school system. The principal should make a careful study to ascertain to what degree his school is meeting the present and future needs of its pupils. So far as the defects discovered are capable of removal with the facilities already available, he should apply the necessary remedy. For improvements which cannot thus be secured he should make constructive recommendations to those in authority and should employ all proper means to secure the adoption of his recommendations. In cities with several high schools a council of principals might well be formed for the discussion of general policies and methods of procedure, which would serve a useful function in disseminating information with regard to successful methods of administration and in securing desirable unity in fundamental aims and methods. There would be the additional advantage that recommendations to the superintendent or board of education from such a council would carry greater weight than if they came from an individual principal.

**II. The principal is responsible for the direction of all the activities of the school.** These activities may be classified under the following heads:

I. *The organization of curricula and the selection of the subject matter of instruction.* In a city with more than one high school, in fact in some cities with only one high school, the principal is not always directly responsible for the organization of the curricula offered in his school. He is in any case responsible for adapting the prescribed curricula to the needs of the pupils of his school. More than this: in case the curricula do not meet the demands set up by the aims of education as formulated by the faculty under his direction, it is his duty to attempt vigorously to secure such changes as will bring about conformity between curricula and aims. As regards subject matter of instruction his responsibility is more definite. He should see to it that the material of instruction employed in

the classroom is such as will meet the needs of the pupils. The fulfillment of this responsibility does not require that the principal possess expert knowledge of the subject matter of all courses offered in his school: it does require that he possess a clear knowledge of the principles underlying the selection of subject matter and that he see that the materials of instruction are chosen in accordance with these principles.

2. *Instruction.* The principal should have expert knowledge of the general methods of teaching and should see, directly or indirectly, that his teachers employ these effectively in their several subjects of instruction.

As in the case of subject matter, this thesis does not imply an expert knowledge of the special methods employed in teaching the various subjects. The training of high-school principals has not generally given them even the knowledge of general methods requisite for effective supervision of instruction. Moreover, it is the common practice of principals to carry such a weight of routine administration as precludes the possibility of giving sufficient time to supervision of teaching. The statement that teaching is the one activity of supreme importance through which the school performs its function needs no supporting argument. The manifold details of administration have as their ultimate aim the securing of the most favorable conditions for carrying on the teaching-process. Any material advance in the efficiency of the schools must be gained through the improvement of classroom instruction. The training and experience of high-school teachers do not warrant the assumption that they are good teachers. Provision for skillful supervision is a fundamental and almost universal need of our high schools.

It is not pertinent at this point to enter upon a discussion of the technique of supervision. The principal should recognize the improvement of instruction as the most important end to be secured. The amount of time that he himself shall devote to teaching and to the numberless routine details of



administration must be determined with reference to this fact. To secure the necessary assistance to relieve him from other less important duties, and to enter upon a task to which he is unaccustomed and for which he has not received special training, will require a very considerable degree of initiative and energy.

3. *Routine administration.* With the rapid increase in enrollment and in the scope of the subjects taught in our secondary schools, it is difficult for the principal to escape the pressure that inevitably tends to confine him to office routine. The position which he occupies and the salary which he receives should require from him the services of a professional leader, not of a clerk. Boards of education in their provision for the administration of the high school do not usually display the sagacity which they show in the management of their private business affairs. Inadequate provision is usually made for such administrative assistance as is necessary if the principal is to perform the professional functions required of him in a modern high school of maximum efficiency. Although he may succeed in delegating a large amount of detail administration to other members of his teaching staff, he will still, in most cases, be held down to a routine which prevents the attainment, even approximately, of the ideals which have been set up in this chapter.

4. *Social activities.* Another type of activity for the direction of which the principal is responsible is found in the social activities of the school. The important part which these activities may contribute to school morale as well as to the training in right social attitudes and habits makes necessary careful provision for their organization and control. The importance of the direction and control of these activities is increased by the fact that through neglect or wrong social ideals they have often come to be injurious in their effects. Examples of the undesirable results that sometimes attend these activities may be found in some schools in an undue emphasis upon athletics

and other forms of social life or in the introduction of the undemocratic fraternities. The principal is responsible for a program by which these activities may be made to contribute constructively toward the attainment of the aims of the school. It is particularly important that these activities be conducted on a democratic basis, which will offer opportunities for the development of social responsibility and leadership.

**III. The principal should delegate to others, so far as feasible, the details of administration and should hold them responsible for the proper performance of the duties assigned.** As has already been indicated, the principal is usually overburdened with the performance of administrative details. To indicate the extent to which this is true, the following quantitative facts are given from the reports made by the principals of the high schools of a large city as to the amount of time devoted to various routine duties each day. The maximum time reported by any principal is given: excusing absences and tardiness, 20 minutes; discipline, 60 minutes; interviews with pupils (not disciplinary), 60 minutes; interviews with parents, 45 minutes; interviews with teachers (not regarding methods of teaching), 120 minutes; correspondence, 120 minutes; showing visitors about the school, 120 minutes. In addition to these items of daily routine one principal reported a total of 464 hours spent each year in schedule-making and classification of pupils.

To secure the necessary time for more important professional duties the principal must delegate many of these tasks. He is fortunate if he can secure an assistant principal and an adequate clerical force. In most cases he will find it necessary to assign administrative duties to members of his teaching staff. This sharing in the performance of administrative tasks is a valuable experience for teachers unless, as is too often the case, it increases a load already heavy enough. The types of duties which may be delegated (not all of which are found in

every school) include the following: (1) departmental organization, in which heads are made responsible for departmental equipment, reports, courses of instruction, choice of textbooks, and for unifying and improving the work of their departments; (2) making the schedule of recitations; (3) excusing absence and tardiness; (4) routine discipline; (5) organization and direction of continuation classes; (6) vocational direction; (7) study-hall control; (8) control of extra-classroom activities; (9) clerical duties; (10) interviews with parents. Besides these, many other forms of routine, not easily classified, requiring occasional attention on the part of the principal, may be delegated to others. It is unfortunately true that anything that is nobody else's business is the principal's. The successful principal must delegate the greater part of this varied routine to others and must see that the duties thus delegated are performed in such a way as will promote the aims of the school as a whole.

Viewing this discussion as a whole, it is evident that there is demanded of the principal an unusual degree of ability in organization and direction. The manager of an industrial plant directs a group of workers in the process of turning inert matter of known properties into a product whose standards and uses are clearly defined. The principal has a far more difficult task. The raw material of the school consists of human beings, with an almost infinite variety of abilities and aptitudes, and the standards for judging the finished product and the uses to which it may best be put are not capable of easy definition. Traditional practice and the conception of school boards and the general public inevitably tend to make the principal a performer of routine tasks, whereas the position demands a professional leader, who shall direct with judgment and skill an organization of exceeding complexity. The principal must regard himself as a leader, responsible for organizing and directing his school so that the particular group of pupils under his charge shall receive the training

that will best prepare them to meet the demands which society will place upon them. Although he is responsible for all the activities of his school, he must determine from careful consideration of all the elements involved how he may best employ his time and efforts in order to meet the responsibilities which are his. He must so delegate the necessary tasks involved in the management of his school, requiring the responsible performance of all delegated duties, that he may devote himself to the higher professional duties of his position. And to reach a practical outcome the principal must consider carefully the relative importance of the various activities for which he is responsible and make out for himself a schedule, definite and complete, which he will highly resolve to follow.

This chapter has given a general survey of the principal's responsibilities as the head of a modern high school. In later chapters will follow a more complete discussion of the various details of administration and supervision in a well-conducted school.

### PROBLEMS AND QUESTIONS

1. Why is it better that the aims of the school should be drawn up by the staff rather than by the principal alone?
2. Elementary-school principals are frequently transferred to a high-school principalship. What are the advantages and disadvantages of this?
3. What difficulties occur to you in carrying out the suggestion for conferences of elementary-school and high-school teachers?
4. Suggest specific ways in which a principal may convince the community and his superiors that he should be regarded as professionally expert.
5. Give two or three adjectives which characterize the principal who justifies the curricula and methods of his school by saying that he must prepare his pupils for the examinations set by the regents or the colleges.
6. Make a tentative schedule of such items as seem properly to be included in the work of the principal, giving the approximate percentage of time to be devoted to each.

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## CHAPTER II

### AIMS OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

**Historical development of secondary education.** Historically secondary education has furnished a means for the perpetuation of aristocracy. In some older countries this has been its conscious aim; in this country, while this aim has not been consciously set up, the aristocratic tendency was an inevitable consequence of the origin of our secondary schools, which has yielded only gradually to the pressure of democratic ideas. Our earliest secondary school, the grammar school of colonial days, was modeled after similar schools in England and was designed to prepare a limited number of boys for college. The changes in secondary education which have taken place since the opening of the Boston Latin School (1635) to the present time have resulted from popular pressure constantly applied to make the aims of education consistent with the fundamental ideals of democracy.

The academy marked the second stage in the evolutionary process, providing educational opportunity beyond the elementary school for a larger number than those who desired preparation for college. The academy, open to girls as well as boys, with its much broader program of studies, represented a long step in the democratization of secondary education, but the system of private control and tuition fees which characterized the academy still proved inconsistent with the developing spirit of democracy. Of quite as much importance was the fact that this school gradually yielded to the same aristocratic tendencies which had dominated the earlier grammar school and finally became essentially a college preparatory school. This will be recognized from the familiar

designation, "preparatory school," which came to be applied to these schools. Popular pressure again resulted in the unique institution of the public high school and the passing of the academy as the dominant type of secondary school.

But the liberation of the secondary school was not yet achieved. It was inevitable that the same restricting influences which had shaped the practices in the previous types should prevail for a time in the high school, whose teachers were the products of the traditional training and whose textbooks were written almost wholly by college instructors. The result was that the materials and methods of instruction placed the emphasis mainly on preparation for college. The justification for this procedure found expression in the specious claim that preparation for college was the best preparation for life. It was equally inevitable that the insistent demands of democracy, which had caused the decline of the grammar school and the academy, should finally bring about the further liberation of the high school from the aristocratic bonds with which it had become fettered. As a result of these demands we are entering the fourth stage in the evolution of the American secondary school, in which the high school is finally to undertake to train the sons and daughters of all the people to become efficient citizens, whether their training shall go on in the specialized work of the university or shall lead directly into the fields of commerce, industry, or house-keeping.

The emancipation of the high school, already well under way, has received additional impetus as a result of the World War, which revealed in striking manner on the one hand the deficiencies of popular education and on the other the contribution, in widely varied forms, which the schools can make to the defense and development of our national life. The keener competition rapidly developing between nations for the markets of the world emphasizes the importance of the schools as an agency for providing training, more vital

and more generally dispersed, for effective participation in the fields of commerce and industry. It is significant, also, that the higher institutions, which have until recently clung tenaciously to their aristocratic ideals, are joining in the movement to democratize education. The familiar slogan of a generation ago is being reversed, and we are coming to recognize, though reluctantly in some quarters, that preparation for life is also a suitable preparation for college.

**Aims of secondary education.** Society has set up and maintains the school as an institution through which to preserve and disseminate among its members such knowledge, skills, ideals, and habits as are essential to its perpetuation and to its consistent development. The highest possible training of each individual in the direction of his special interests and abilities is of supreme importance to the State. There are abundant evidences in the changes now going on with respect to administrative organization, the scope and content of courses, and the methods of instruction that the school was never before so responsive to social demand. It is exceedingly important at this time of vigorous reorganization that the dominant aims of education should be clearly stated and rigidly kept in mind.

The aims of education in a democracy should proceed from an analysis of the activities of the individual members of society. The activities of individuals in so complex a society as our own present the widest possible variation, and a complete analysis is not easily possible. Nor, for our purpose, is such an analysis necessary, for only those elements which are common to all and are fundamental in their nature need here to be considered.

In the first place, good health and proper physical development are fundamental to the individual's effectiveness. The lack of these makes him a burden for society to bear. Each individual is a member of various social groups, ranging from the family to the State. Each mature individual should

do his part as a worker and producer, at least so far as to provide for his own economic necessities. Every individual has a certain amount of leisure time, the worthy use of which will not only increase his own happiness, but will also add to his value as a member of society. These facts give us the four fundamental aims of secondary education: (1) health, (2) vocational training, (3) social coöperation, (4) worthy use of leisure. It is incumbent upon the school to provide to the fullest possible extent for each of these.

The Commission of the National Education Association on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, in its *Cardinal Principles*, includes three additional aims not given in the above analysis. Of these, worthy home membership does not differ essentially from the social aim, broadly interpreted, and is here included under this head. Another aim, command of fundamental processes, seems unnecessary to include as a distinct aim of secondary education. The elementary-school period of eight years has been regarded as sufficient to give command of the fundamental processes reading, writing, arithmetical computation, and the elements of expression. It is probable that some attention will need to be given to these after the six years which the new form of elementary school is coming to include. It seems probable, however, that most, if not all, of this additional training in the use of the "tools" of education will become incidental in the organization of subject matter and the methods of instruction of the high school. The elimination of subject matter which is not vital and of the extended reviews which have been so much employed in the upper grades of the elementary schools will make the attainment of this aim more certain. A seventh aim, ethical character, has not been included as a separate objective, although its importance will be recognized as very great. This is so intimately related to each of the four specific aims as to make it almost impossible to dissociate it even for purposes of analysis. It is inherent in the subject

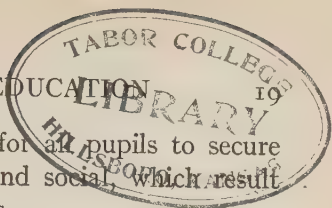
matter of many courses, particularly those dealing with social relationships. It is fundamental to the organization of the school's activities, both those of formal nature and those connected with the extra-classroom life of the modern school. Later chapters dealing with these phases of the school will place much emphasis upon this important outcome.

1. *Health.* It was discovered in connection with the late war that a large number of men of draft age were incapacitated for military service because of physical defects due to remediable or preventable causes. This fact has caused wider recognition of the importance of the good health and proper physical development of every member of society and of the need of suitable instruction and training to secure this basic end. Other social agencies besides the school are disseminating helpful information on health. The elementary school occupies a strategic position in this regard, both because it touches directly all the children and because so many damaging conditions may best be remedied or prevented before the children reach the high-school age. But throughout all the phases of the complex organization of the high school consideration of the health and physical development of the pupils is of supreme importance.

In the selection of a building-site provision should be made for proper sanitation and for the participation of all the pupils in healthful physical activities. Buildings should be planned with careful attention to suitable lighting, heating, and ventilation. The building should be cared for in accordance with the best standards of hygiene and sanitation.

The teaching staff should include those thoroughly trained in hygiene and physical education. The aim of physical training should not be the development of a few highly specialized teams to compete successfully with similar teams from other schools. This practice, which has so largely prevailed, has been of doubtful value from the point of view of health even for the small number of pupils whom it has directly





reached. Provision should be made for all pupils to secure the valuable results, both physical and social, which result from well-organized physical activities.

The school physician, nurse, and dentist are found in many schools, physical and medical examinations are made, appropriate treatment or advice is given for the remedy of discovered defects, and corrective physical exercise is prescribed for individuals and is carried out under competent direction. Instruction in hygiene (including the hygiene of sex) is given in science courses, and the importance of the proper care of the body is emphasized in vital connection with physical training. The cooking-classes and school lunch room teach and exemplify the principles of dietetics. In the making of the recitation schedule considerations of health are involved in the length of the class period and of the school day and in the arrangement of the schedules of individuals. Within the classrooms the relation of posture to health, as well as to effective performance of tasks, is given attention.

This enumeration of the points at which instruction and training in matters pertaining to health are involved in the work of the high school might be extended much further. Enough has been said to show the vital and far-reaching importance of this aim.

2. *Vocational training.* Society rightly expects each individual on reaching maturity to provide for the economic needs of himself and of those who are dependent upon him. The work of the school has been regarded in a general way as a preparation for life. This preparation has been in a large degree ineffective in providing training for the specific tasks which the demands of life place upon the pupils on leaving school. The secondary school was in the beginning conducted on the assumption that it had to do only with those who were preparing for professional life. We have seen how this idea continued to dominate the work of the schools long after this original assumption became outgrown.

With the changed social conditions of the present it is rightly demanded of the school that it train its pupils on leaving school to take up as effectively as possible the specific occupations of our highly organized society. Untold loss has resulted from the failure of the school to take into account the wide variations in natural interests and abilities of different pupils and to provide instruction adapted to meet these variations. The high school receives the pupil at the time when these differences become most significant. On leaving high school the majority enter upon some life occupation. Those who go on to higher schools are merely prolonging their preparation for some vocation. Upon the high school falls the obligation to assist the pupil in making the proper choice and to give him at least the beginning of the necessary training for his chosen vocation.

The high school should provide opportunity for the pupil to explore the various fields through widely diversified subjects of the curriculum, thus discovering the direction in which his natural aptitudes and abilities may find the fullest and most satisfactory expression. Careful guidance at this point on the part of his teachers is necessary. Information as to the requirements and opportunities afforded by the various vocations should be available for this purpose. Following this period of exploration there should be offered the widest possible variety of courses vitally related to vocational life. This does not mean that the materials of instruction should be narrowly conceived merely with a view to preparation for a limited number of specific vocations. The vocational demands of the community will determine to a large extent the nature of these courses in a given school. The occupations of the home, farm, office, or shop will form the basis for these courses, in which the instruction should be given, so far as possible, by teachers who have acquired their knowledge and skill in actual experience in these occupations. The development of actual vocational skill should

be accompanied with the acquisition of knowledge of the history, economics, and social relationships involved in vocational life. This will require a considerable content of academic courses, which will give an appreciation of the social significance of the occupations in which the pupils are later to be engaged. Through the fulfillment of this aim the high school will make a significant contribution to society by providing preparation for the more efficient performance of its varied tasks and by diminishing the number of misfits who fall by chance into occupations after leaving school.

3. *Social coöperation.* The social aim in secondary education has in view the development in the individual pupil (1) of such knowledge as will enable him to understand the meaning of social relationships in the groups, large or small, of which he is or is to be a part; (2) of such abilities as will enable him to play a worthy part in the activities of these groups; (3) of such ideals as will lead him to assume right attitudes in all situations involving social coöperation; (4) of such habits as will assure right conduct in situations which involve his relationships to other individuals. The individual's social relationships begin at the point at which two persons touch each other for purposes of work or recreation; they include groups of various sizes, beginning with the family and culminating in humanity as a whole.

This aim should permeate every phase of the life and work of the school. The school should be organized and administered on a democratic basis. Discipline should grow out of an understanding of the needs of the school as a community organized for the attainment of definite and common ends. Misconduct should be regarded not as affecting merely the offender and his teacher or principal, but as an offense against the social well-being of the class or of the larger school group. A large degree of coöperation between principal, teachers, and pupils should be secured in setting up right standards of conduct and in securing conformity to these standards.

All subjects in which instruction is given should make their contribution to the fulfillment of the social aim. The social studies are best adapted to this end. The formal material of geography, history, civics, and economics, which have formed the basis of instruction in this field, is being reorganized to bring out the vital relationships between men and institutions of the past and the present day and to show the social significance of the agencies and activities which are in operation all about us. The study of literature, also, may be made to contribute to this end. The project method of instruction provides a means of securing coöperation in the solution of problems of interest to the group, and the socialized recitation develops a sense of social solidarity in a group organized for a common end.

The school assembly, if so conducted as to secure the participation of a large number of pupils, is an important means of securing this sense of social solidarity on the part of the entire school and may be made most effective in setting up right standards and securing the permanence of helpful traditions of right social conduct. Group social activity, so natural to adolescent youth, has frequently, through the failure of school officers to realize its significance and educational possibilities, led to socially undesirable consequences. Properly organized and developed, these informal activities furnish an unusually effective means of developing individual initiative and a sense of social responsibility. This field of activity, which makes such a natural and vital appeal to the pupils, offers the best opportunity for establishing right habits of conduct.

4. *Worthy use of leisure.* The fourth aim which we have set up for secondary education, while apparently less fundamental than the others, cannot be omitted without danger of grave loss. To perform his work well every person should have considerable leisure which he may devote to purposes of recreation and enjoyment. The working day in most forms of industry leaves about one fourth of the worker's



time for leisure. Whether he shall employ this time worthily or not is of great concern to the individual and to society. To provide for this aim the school should undertake (1) to set up standards and develop tastes which will help to determine the choice of proper forms of recreation and pleasure and (2) to develop habits which will continue to give enjoyment and recreation in leisure hours in mature life.

Courses in literature should develop such tastes and interests in reading and in the theater. The social studies and science courses should reveal interests which will give life-long sources of satisfaction. Courses in music should develop abilities and appreciations which will become permanent sources of enjoyment. The school library should develop the habit of seeking for information beyond the demands of teachers in the various subjects and should lead to the love of ownership of books and to the use of the facilities offered by public libraries. In connection with any subject of instruction, pupils should be encouraged to develop hobbies which may be in no way connected with their chosen vocations but will continue to interest them in leisure time; this is of particular importance in view of the routine nature of so much of the necessary labor in industry.

The social activities of the school, providing as they do for the proper use of leisure during school life, should aid greatly in the development of tastes and habits which will endure. It is unfortunate that our athletic games, which are so attractive during school life, are so highly specialized and are of such a nature as generally to preclude active participation in the same sports for any length of time after leaving school. The setting up of standards and the formation of habits of good sportsmanship in school athletics are desirable objectives in the training of those who may derive recreation from athletic contests only as spectators. The general participation in athletic sports, however, may be expected to carry over an interest which will lead an increasing number

to continue to engage in physical recreation in forms better suited to mature years.

Such considerations of the general aims of secondary education as have been discussed in this chapter should form the basis for a statement of the aims of every high school. As indicated in the preceding chapter, it is the duty of the principal as leader to direct his staff in formulating aims which will serve as guides in selecting the activities of his school and in determining the emphasis to be placed upon each of them. It is a mistake, however, to think that the adoption of a set of general aims, however carefully prepared, will greatly affect procedure. It is necessary to analyze in much greater detail the specific objectives to be secured through instruction in the various subjects taught and through the social situations of the school life. No one ever hits a mark, except by accident, unless he aims at it. Much ammunition has been wasted in our schools by shooting into the air. It is for the principal to realize how much more effective his school may become if he and the members of his staff are guided by definite aims which together they are striving to attain.

### PROBLEMS AND QUESTIONS

1. In what respects are our private secondary schools of today more democratic than the colonial grammar school?
2. Cite specific evidence that the high school is becoming more responsive to social demand (1) in its administrative organization, (2) in its methods of control, (3) in the scope and content of its courses, and (4) in its methods of instruction.
3. A certain high school gives pupils credit for sleeping with open windows. On what grounds, if any, is this justified?
4. In the light of the aims set up in this chapter what are the arguments for and against separate vocational high schools?
5. Where is training for citizenship included in the four general aims?
6. Cite in some detail the contributions made to these aims by some subject of the curriculum.

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## CHAPTER III

### THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL AND THE HIGH SCHOOL THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

Originally the elementary school and the secondary school were quite independent of each other in aim and function. The elementary school was designed to give such control of the fundamental processes and such information, habits, and attitudes as were thought essential for all citizens. The term "common school," so popularly used, is significant of its purpose. The number of years assigned to elementary education has varied at different times and in different communities according to their conception of the value of education and their ability to provide the funds necessary for the support of the schools. For a long time the prevailing type of elementary school in New England comprised a period of nine years; such schools may still be found. In the South seven years have commonly been given to the elementary school. Eight years in the North and seven years in the South have come to be the fairly uniform time given to elementary education. The secondary school, as we have seen, first aimed to give preparation for college and, in spite of the rapid increase in the number of schools and pupils, has until recently been largely dominated by this aim. The two institutions have developed quite independently of each other in response to distinctly different social demands. The eight-year elementary school and the four-year high school, then, do not represent the working out of a rational theory of organization, but are rather the result of accident. In no other country is found a similar distribution of time.

**Lack of coördination.** The resulting lack of coördination between the elementary school and the high school has been an important source of waste. Aside from the relatively few teachers who have had experience in both schools, there has been a surprising lack of knowledge of the materials and methods employed in the one school by the teachers of the other. Such supervision as has been employed has not greatly improved the situation. High-school teachers have assumed a quite unwarranted attitude of superiority to the teachers in the lower schools and have complained loudly of the lack of proper preparation for high-school work shown by pupils from the grades. This has often been assigned by teachers as an adequate reason for the failure of so large a number of pupils in the first year of the high school. There is an urgent need for a better understanding on the part of all teachers of the aims, methods, and materials employed throughout the entire system, particularly of those teachers whose work is in the upper years of the elementary school and the early years of the high school. Such understanding is absolutely essential for principals and supervisors.

**Elimination of waste.** To what extent waste may be eliminated through closer coördination may be illustrated by the experience of the Elementary and High Schools of the School of Education of The University of Chicago. These schools were designed to serve as laboratories of the School of Education. Each has a separate organization with an administrative and teaching staff of its own. During the first ten years after their organization each school was largely occupied with the effort to secure unity out of the somewhat divergent elements of which it was composed. There was little actual coöperation between the two, the elementary staff feeling a sense of professional superiority which was doubtless warranted, and the teachers of the high school on their part feeling a corresponding sense of superiority based on little save the traditional attitude of the secondary-school



teacher toward matters of technique in method which he has not fully understood. Save for occasional joint faculty meetings of a rather perfunctory sort, the relation between the two schools was not much closer than that which exists between the elementary and high schools in a well-ordered system of public schools.

After a few years spent in securing unity within themselves it was inevitable that the necessity for a larger unity between the two schools, whose purpose was essentially one, should be felt. The first step was to study conditions as they were. In the autumn of 1910 the author made a detailed study of the standing of pupils from the University Elementary School in the work of the first quarter of the High School. Of the 126 first-year pupils in the High School, 44, or 35 per cent, had come from the University Elementary School; the remaining 82, or 65 per cent, were from other sources, mainly the public elementary schools of the city of Chicago.

The results of this study showed a slight superiority in the work of the pupils from the University Elementary School taken as a whole, though the highest fifth contained a small percentage more of pupils from other sources. Analyzed in detail, the two groups showed marked variations of excellence and inferiority in different subjects. In Latin and mathematics the pupils from the University Elementary School showed marked superiority; they showed a real but less marked superiority in modern language and design. In English they showed a very slight superiority; in history and science they showed distinct inferiority.

The facts revealed in this detailed study did not necessarily involve a criticism of either school. It was a fair assumption that the marked excellence in Latin was due to the training in French and German which a majority of the pupils from the University Elementary School had received. On the other hand, it was fair to expect that the greater

attention given to handwork in this school would show superior results in the high-school work in design. The difference in standing in English and mathematics indicated either that the work in these two subjects differed in the effectiveness of the elementary-school instruction in these subjects or in the ability of the high-school instruction to utilize the training previously given. Similar inferences could be drawn from the inferiority shown in history and science. The problem which confronted those in charge of the administration of the schools was to determine the causes of the lack of coördination revealed and to remove them.

As a first step in the solution of the problem a series of departmental conferences was begun between the teachers of the two schools in order to secure a mutual understanding of the materials and methods of instruction employed in both schools. These conferences, on English, foreign languages, history, mathematics, science, domestic science, and the various types of handwork, were held at frequent intervals and became a part of the regular school procedure. The work of the seventh and eighth grades and of the first year of the high school was studied in special detail. It was discovered that the teachers in each school were unfamiliar with the aims and methods of the teachers of the same departments in the other school, and that as a result much time and effort were wasted in the repetition of work already done and in the failure to utilize fully some of the work accomplished in an earlier grade.

The lack of coördination was found to differ in degree in different subjects; in all it was sufficient to demand immediate remedy. For example, in modern languages the children had for many years begun either French or German in the fourth grade and continued this during the remaining years of the course. The high school had been accustomed to carry these pupils forward in their chosen language in special classes, but they were given little substantial credit for their previous

work and not infrequently found themselves, before they had completed the high-school language courses, in the same classes as those who had begun their modern-language work in the high school. The time spent in the elementary school in the study of French and German was, to some degree for all and to a very large degree for some, absolutely wasted.

The conferences resulted in modifications in the work and more particularly in the attitude of the teachers in both schools. In modern languages the work was so arranged that elementary-school teachers gave instruction in first-year classes, and high-school teachers came in frequent contact with the modern-language work of the elementary school and from time to time taught in the grades. In other subjects the adjustment was found to be less complicated, because no work was done in the elementary school which was designed to prepare pupils for more advanced courses than those offered in the first year of the high school. It was found that there was considerable duplication in English and mathematics, which was hindering the progress of pupils in these subjects. This duplication with its consequent waste was removed, and a better understanding of the aims and methods in these subjects was secured by an interchange of teachers between the two schools.

The elementary school had given much attention to elementary science. In the high school a course in general science had been organized, which was required of first-year pupils. It was found on investigation that this first-year science course was uninteresting and, by reason of its repetitious nature, of little value to pupils of the elementary school. These pupils were allowed to omit this course and take, either in their first year or later, some of the specialized science courses designed to follow the general introductory course. A similar lack of coördination in manual training, in which the elementary-school pupils took the same work as those who had had no previous work of this sort, was also remedied

by allowing these pupils to omit the first course and go on, if they desired, with more advanced work.

By using whatever training the pupils brought from the lower school and building upon this their work in the high school, there was secured a much higher degree of correlation between the work of the two schools. By reducing the amount of unnecessary reviewing and the repetition of material in successive years, it became apparent that considerable time could be saved without undue forcing of pupils, without loss of anything of value, and with positive gain in the mental attitude and habits of the pupils. The year following the inception of these departmental conferences the eighth grade was promoted to the high school with more than half the first year's work already accomplished, and a considerable number of these pupils later completed the high-school course satisfactorily in three years. The following year the eighth grade was dropped entirely, and pupils were thereafter promoted to the high school at the end of the seventh grade. The schools have recently been reorganized with a six-year elementary school and a five-year high school, continuing the saving of one year secured under the former plan.

An identical study of the work of three successive classes promoted at the end of seven years showed that these classes from the first made a satisfactory record; in each year except the first the results were superior in quality to those secured by pupils who had received eight years of elementary training in other schools. The further significant fact appeared that, measured in terms of the number of units of work accomplished, there was a similar advantage for those pupils who had spent one year less in the grades.

The administrative experiment, described in detail above, reveals the possibility of saving some of this waste which has resulted from the irrational organization of our schools. Whether this saving is in the form of time or of a more effective use of the years assigned to the entire period of

elementary and secondary education is relatively unimportant. The vigorous reorganization of our schools aims to secure the advantages which may be expected from the fusion of our disconnected elementary and secondary schools into a coherent, progressive system of education.

**The junior high school.** The junior-high-school movement, as this reorganization is usually called, has been so rapid and so widespread, and the forms that it has taken have been so varied, that it cannot be described in terms of uniformly accepted standards either of organization or of aims. Briggs, in his book "The Junior High School," tabulates 791 junior high schools reported in 1917, showing at that time only three states without such schools and one state, Massachusetts, with 79. He also found nine distinct types of organization in the matter of grades included, ranging from the single grades 7, 8, and 9 to the combination grades 6-8, 7-8, 7-9, 8-9, 8-10. The most common form of organization combines the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades.

The thirty-five different reasons given for the establishment of 266 junior high schools as reported by Briggs show a lack of agreement as to the ends to be attained, which was perhaps to be expected at that time. Thirty-six, the second largest number in the table, gave as the chief reason for the establishment of such schools the utilization of an old high-school building. It is to be suspected that a large number of so-called junior high schools have had their origin, as one school officer frankly reported, in a desire to "keep up with the times." It is doubtful whether such a reorganization, without specific aims on the level of improved instructional procedure, will prove more effective than the organization which it has displaced.

**Aims of the junior high school.** There are, however, numerous specific aims given by the proponents of the junior high school which are affecting the procedure in many of the best schools of this type. For the most part the value of these



aims, so far as they can be measured by results definitely secured, remain in the realm of expectation rather than of proved achievement.

The following definition and statement, adopted by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, includes aims which have been set forth with varying degrees of emphasis and particularity by different writers on the subject:

The junior high school shall normally include the 7th, 8th, and 9th years of public-school work. The junior-high-school organization and administration shall realize the following aims and purposes:

1. To continue through its instructional program the aims of public education in a democracy.
2. To reduce to the minimum the elimination of pupils by offering types of work best suited to their interests, needs, and capacities.
3. To give the pupil an opportunity under systematic educational guidance to discover his dominant interests, capacities, and limitations with reference to his future vocational activities or the continuance of his education in higher schools.
4. To economize time through such organization and administration of subjects and courses both for those who will continue their education in higher schools and for those who will enter immediately into life's activities.

**Advantages claimed.** From a survey of the voluminous literature on the junior high school, Briggs summarizes the claims which have been made for the new form of organization as follows:

1. That it will bring about certain administrative advantages such as (1) classes of approximately normal size, (2) a larger use of the school plant, (3) a more efficient use of the time of special teachers and supervisors, (4) the offering of differentiated curricula, (5) departmental teaching, (6) promotion by subject.
2. That it will make easier the desired reforms in curricula, courses of study, and extra-classroom activities.
3. That it will find or develop better teachers.
4. That it will provide better for the varying needs of pupils due to individual differences.
5. That it will retain pupils longer in school, facilitate their transition to higher schools, save time for them, and result in a more effective training in character.

**Objections urged.** Over against these claims of advantages to be secured by the junior high school the same author summarizes the objections urged against the new form of organization as follows:

1. The junior-high-school program is indefinite.
2. Criticisms are for the most part of defects that can be remedied in the present organization.
3. State laws make the establishment of junior high schools difficult if not impossible.
4. There is a lack of suitable textbooks.
5. There is a lack of suitable teachers.
6. There is a lack of proper buildings and equipment.
7. There is much opposition from elementary-school principals and teachers who feel slighted by not being taken into the junior high school.
8. Departmental teaching is bad for pupils of the immaturity found in junior high schools.
9. The junior high school will cause two gaps in the school system instead of one.
10. The segregation of pupils of early adolescence is undesirable.
11. The junior high school will cost more.
12. Differentiated curricula should not be offered until pupils have completed eight years of work acquiring the tools of education.
13. The junior high school may make against democracy.

Weighed against each other, the advantages claimed, even though unsupported by reliable data from wide experience, seem to overbalance the disadvantages. Briggs gives as his conclusions from the schools reporting that "in so far as these data are representative, they show that junior high schools do tend to increase the enrollment of pupils of early adolescence, especially of boys, to retain them longer in school, to bridge the gaps between the elementary grades and the high school, to furnish better provisions for pupils of varying abilities and needs, and to increase the interest, school spirit, and community support." So far as the claims for the new organization represent ideals, they are certainly worthy ones, which the older system has failed to attain in large measure. Many of the objections are of temporary

nature and are unrelated to fundamental educational considerations. Communities are not accustomed long to withhold increased funds when convinced that the schools will be made more effective by their expenditure. Already greatly improved textbooks are becoming available for the junior-high-school period, and expert teachers are being found in service or are being trained to meet the new demand.

The junior high school is a going concern in every part of the country. The zeal with which teachers and administrative officers are attacking its problems has not been duplicated, and probably could not have been approached under the old form of organization. Its very novelty, while exposing it to manifold mistakes, makes the junior high school, under wise guidance, the hope of an ultimate increase in the efficiency of the schools. The movement, temporarily checked during the period of the World War, has been resumed with increased vigor, and there are already emerging standardized forms of organization and instructional methods which assure the permanent value of the junior high school.

**Procedure of organization.** For the organization of the junior high school in any community, large or small, it is not enough simply to be assured that there are an available building and a sufficient number of teachers. This has too frequently resulted merely in transferring to the new school the textbooks and methods of instruction of the upper elementary grades or of bringing down the materials and methods of the high school. Either procedure will secure only the form of the junior high school and few, if any, of its advantages. A suitable building and equipment are of course essential. But of even greater importance are courses of study adapted to the needs of the pupils in the given community and of trained teachers who are skillful in dealing with children in the early adolescent period and who understand the purposes of the new type of school. In the transitional period those teachers of the upper grades who

have had good academic preparation, and high-school teachers who have had previous experience in the elementary school, have been found to be prepared best to take up the work successfully.

The final results have proved more satisfactory when some time has been taken in preliminary preparations before launching the new project. A good illustration of such procedure is found in the method employed by Superintendent Hartwell of Buffalo, New York, in preparation for the opening of twelve junior high schools in that city. A comprehensive bulletin dealing with plans for the new schools was placed in the hands of all teachers of the city. The following, under the heading "Committees on Courses of Study," is typical of the extent to which the coöperation of the entire body of teachers was sought:

One of the biggest problems connected with the new Intermediate Schools is the working out of satisfactory curricula. Although two years must elapse before the schools will be ready for occupancy, in view of the magnitude of the problems to be settled before that time, this period will be found all too short. I am particularly anxious that these curricula, when completed, should represent the best thought of the entire teaching body. With this end in view, I purpose to organize the teachers who are particularly interested in the various subjects to be taught in the Intermediate Schools in committees on courses of study. These committees will work out courses in the various subjects which, when completed, should include the best thought of other systems modified by their own experience to meet local conditions.

Among the problems which will confront these committees for solution may be cited such as the following:

Should the aim in science be primarily to stimulate an interest in this subject by giving a very general course involving the elements of many of the special sciences, or should it be directly preparatory to the science courses of the senior high school? If the former, just what subject matter should be included?

What is the optimum amount and character of commercial work for adolescent pupils? Has stenography a proper place in such a course?

How should the study of civics be made to function in a higher type of citizenship?

In literature, should the reading be uniform for all the schools, or should the varied environments of the school result in a varied curriculum?

These are a few of the questions which such a committee would have to consider.

Any teacher who is interested in intensive work along this line is invited to send in her name, together with the subject of her particular interest.

The bulletin goes on to state that it is purposed in the new schools to do away with the traditional recitation and to make a dominant aim of the classroom to teach pupils how to study. Courses in methods, free of charge, were offered to all teachers who were interested in preparing for this type of work.

Similar preparation was made for the large junior high school in Bayonne, New Jersey, and the principal of the school was elected and placed in charge of the details of organization a year before the opening of school.

It is not pertinent to the purpose of this chapter to discuss in detail the organization and work of the junior high school. These will be taken up as they are related to the various phases of administration treated in later chapters.

**Dangers to be avoided.** The objection that the junior high school causes an additional break in our school system presents a real danger against which school administrators must be on their guard. It is essential that there be close coördination between the junior high school and the elementary school to avoid the waste that has been found between the eighth and ninth grades. It is equally important, and from present indications quite as difficult, to secure mutual understanding and cordial coöperation between the junior and senior high schools. Too often there is found a tendency among those in charge of the senior school to speak disparagingly of the discipline and instruction of the junior school. To some extent this is probably justified because of the very novelty of the junior high school. But those in charge of the



new school should not be overmuch concerned with this transfer of the traditional attitude of high-school teachers toward the lower grades. It is devoutly to be hoped that those pupils who enter the senior high school will be greatly different from those who have formerly been promoted from the ninth grade of the four-year high school. There is placed upon those in charge of the senior high school the definite responsibility of finding out how and what the pupils have been taught in the junior school and of so adapting their methods of teaching and control to the pupils who come to them as to conserve to the utmost what those pupils bring in information, power, and attitudes toward life. If the junior high school fulfills its peculiar functions, the differentiated work of the senior high school should be conducted on a higher level of effectiveness than has ever been realized under the traditional form of organization.

Another danger confronting the junior high school is that its work will be made to conform to the standards of time and content of instruction of the four-year school. In connection with college preparation the difficulty of fixing the value of junior-high-school work in terms of accepted units has already been felt. When admission to college is secured by examination no serious problem arises, but there is some difficulty in the matter of admission by certificate. The proposal to base college-entrance requirements upon the number of units secured in the senior high school would seem to be a natural and satisfactory method.

At the 1923 meeting of the North Central Association the report of the Committee on Junior High Schools and College Entrance Requirements, made up of members representing the three standing commissions, was adopted with the following recommendations:

(1) That colleges provide an alternative plan to the present system of entrance requirements, said plan to call for twelve entrance units all of which are to be done in the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades.

(2) That the colleges in restating their entrance requirements consider the following definite suggestions as to distribution of units:

A major of . . . . .	3 units
Two minors of . . . . .	2 units each (4 units)
Electives . . . . .	<u>5 units</u>
	12 units

- a. English shall be offered either as a major or minor.
- b. Nine of the twelve units shall be in academic subjects.
- c. The two minors may be specified by any university for entrance to any college.

(3) Until standards have been established for the junior high school the present North Central Standards as to teacher training and teaching load now in effect for secondary schools shall apply to the ninth grade in junior high schools.

(4) The North Central Association shall take steps to recognize as standard schools three-year senior high schools.

(5) That a committee be appointed to continue the work and to prepare a list of three-year junior high schools to be submitted at the 1924 meeting of the North Central Association.

Another solution is to grant credit for junior-high-school work on the basis of the work which the pupil continues in the senior school. Thus, if a pupil carries successfully what has been rated in the four-year high school as a second year's work in foreign language or mathematics, he would be given a unit's credit for the work in each subject taken in the junior school. In any event it would be unfortunate for the junior high school to lose its initiative in the selection of its subject matter and methods of instruction by placing upon it, in its infancy, the necessity of standardizing its work in terms of formal units as defined for the senior high school.

From present tendencies, clearly observable throughout the country, it seems probable that in a generation the junior high school will have superseded the long-established form of organization. The extended description of the methods by which the effectiveness of the University of Chicago schools was increased by bringing the teachers of the elementary and high schools into closer coöperation through mutual

understanding was intended to point the way to methods of bridging the gaps in the new system. While public schools do not present so simple a problem as that with which the Chicago schools had to deal, in its essential principles the method is applicable to any school system. Representative groups of administrative officers and teachers from both schools should study in detail the work of the elementary schools and the junior high school for the purpose of devising methods of teaching and administration which will not allow the orderly progress of children to be checked at the period of transfer to the junior school. For the present, at least, it is probably even more necessary that representative groups from the junior and senior high schools study the situation that has been created by the additional break between the ninth and tenth grades. It is the duty of the high-school principal, in conjunction with his superintendent and representatives of the elementary schools, to take the necessary steps to weld the twelve years of the elementary and secondary schools into a coherent system of education from the kindergarten to the college.

### PROBLEMS AND QUESTIONS

1. Compare the organization of elementary and secondary education in this country with that of France, Germany, England, and Japan.
2. Outline the procedure which a high-school principal in a city of fifteen thousand population might take to coördinate the work of the elementary and high schools.
3. What difficulties would he be likely to meet?
4. What is the peculiar function of the junior high school? How does this affect the curriculum?
5. For which of the advantages summarized by Briggs can you cite evidence that they have been realized in existing schools?
6. Which of the objections urged against the junior high school are of temporary nature? Which are based on fundamental educational considerations?
7. Why is it undesirable that the work of the junior high school be standardized in units?

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## CHAPTER IV

### THE HIGH SCHOOL AND THE COLLEGE

**Administrative relationships.** The connection between the secondary school and the college has been more intimate than that between the secondary school and the elementary school. Organized for the sole purpose of preparing for college, the secondary school until recently has been dominated by this aim. Nor has this domination by the college been wholly to the hurt of the school. So long as the dogma of formal discipline determined educational procedure, the meeting of college requirements furnished useful incentive to the secondary school. But in the light of present educational theory the relations between the secondary school and the college have undergone a marked change. High-school men have changed their attitude of complaisant acquiescence in college domination to one sometimes approaching bumptious officiousness, and college men are laying aside their attitude of superior wisdom which has furnished a cloak to conceal their ignorance of sound educational theory and practice. The result has been good for both the school and the college.

It has become the custom for many colleges to hold yearly conferences to which representatives of the schools are invited to discuss their mutual problems. A new and strange spectacle in educational history was presented a few years ago when The University of Chicago invited secondary-school principals and teachers to visit its classrooms and held a two days' series of general and departmental conferences for a critical discussion with these teachers of the methods of the university classrooms. This was followed the next year by visits from junior-college instructors of the university to the



classrooms of high schools in Chicago and neighboring cities, not in a perfunctory manner, but for successive days. In addition to these conferences between single colleges and the schools, and antedating them in most cases, are the various associations of colleges and secondary schools. Their chief purpose has been to make more effective the machinery for the transfer of students from one to the other, although it should be said that some of them (notably the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools) have gone much farther than this, have brought the schools and colleges in their membership into vital and sympathetic relationship, and by their investigations and discussions have had an important effect upon both secondary and collegiate education.

The administrative relationship between the secondary school and the college has to do chiefly with (1) the preparation required and (2) the method of securing admission to college. The high-school principal will find it interesting and profitable to secure a background for understanding the present situation by reading the seventeenth chapter of Brown's "The Making of our Middle Schools" and the doctor's dissertation by McKown, "The Trend of College Entrance Requirements, 1913-1922," in which the material is presented up to the present time.

**College-admission requirements.** The subjects required for admission to college, for a long time limited in number and in content, have in recent years broadened in scope to include practically every subject taught in the secondary school. The rapidly expanding curriculum of both the school and the college has resulted from popular demand for education to meet the varying needs of modern society. To this demand the high school has naturally been quicker to respond. In general it may be said that the colleges of the West have responded more readily to this extension of the subjects accepted for admission, while those of the East have held more tenaciously to the traditional requirements.

Up to the year 1868 eight subjects comprised the requirements for admission to college: Latin, Greek, arithmetic, geography, English grammar, algebra, geometry, and ancient history. In a period of six years from this date six new subjects appear in the stated admission requirements of Harvard, Michigan, and Princeton in the following order: United States history, physical geography, English composition, physical science, English literature, and modern languages. Slightly antedating this broadening of the scope of entrance requirements came the offering of alternative courses leading to a degree for those students who did not conform to the requirements for the Bachelor of Arts degree. The first ten colleges offering these courses are, in order, as follows: Brown, Ph.B., 1851; Harvard (Lawrence Scientific School), B.S., 1851; Yale (Sheffield Scientific School), Ph.B., 1852; Dartmouth, B.S., 1852; Rochester, B.S., 1852; Michigan, B.S., 1853; Columbia, Ph.B., 1864; Cornell, Ph.B., B.S., 1868; Amherst, B.S., 1872; Princeton, B.S., 1873.

With the changes rapidly taking place in the content of the curriculum of the secondary school, the need of adjustment between the secondary school and the college became pressing. The requirements of the colleges showed great diversity both in the subjects required or accepted for admission and in the amount required in the different subjects. To secure the needed unification of college-entrance requirements the Committee on College Entrance Requirements was appointed by the National Educational Association in 1895. This committee made several preliminary reports, the most important of which gave in tabular form the entrance requirements of sixty-seven colleges, universities, and technical schools. The final report was presented in 1899. The report dealt chiefly with the establishment of "national units or norms" in the subjects recognized for admission to college. Of the fourteen specific recommendations contained in this report the following are of most significance:

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I. That the principle of election be recognized in secondary schools.

IV. That we favor a unified six-year high school course beginning with the seventh grade.

VI. That, while the Committee recognizes as suitable for recommendation by the colleges for admission the several studies enumerated in this report, and while it also recognizes the principle of large liberty to the students in secondary schools, it does not believe in unlimited election, but especially emphasizes the importance of a certain number of constants in all secondary schools and in all requirements for admission to colleges. That the Committee recommends that the number of constants be recognized in the following proportion, namely: four units in foreign language (no language accepted in less than two units), two units in mathematics, two in English, one in history, and one in science.

VII. That the colleges will aid the secondary schools by allowing credit toward a degree for work done in secondary schools beyond the amount required for entrance, when equal in amount and thoroughness to work done in the same subjects in college.

VIII. That for students who have not a definite requirement in any science, and who continue the subject in college, it seems to us desirable that there be provided a suitable sequel to the school course in continuation of the study, such students being in no case placed in the same class with beginners.

IX. That we approve of encouraging gifted students to complete the preparatory course in less time than is required of most students.

XII. That we recommend that any piece of work comprehended within the studies included in this report that has covered at least one year of four periods a week in a well-equipped secondary school under competent instruction, should be considered worthy to count toward admission to college.

XIV. That we recommend an increase in the school day in secondary schools, to permit a larger amount of study in school under supervision.

**The standard unit.** As an administrative device for standardizing the requirements for admission to college the term "unit" has come into almost universal use. In 1909 the National Conference Committee on Standards of Colleges and Secondary Schools adopted the following definition of a unit: "A unit represents a year's study in any subject in a secondary school, consisting approximately of a quarter of a full year's work." This definition is now regularly employed

by the College Entrance Examination Board, the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, and some other educational organizations. In the standards of accrediting secondary schools of the North Central Association a unit course of study in a secondary school is defined as "a course covering an academic year that shall include in the aggregate not less than the equivalent of one hundred and twenty sixty-minute hours of classroom work, two hours of manual training or laboratory work being equivalent to one hour of classroom work." The association makes the explicit recommendation that more than twenty periods per week for a pupil should be discouraged. The formalizing tendency of this definition is to be noted both in the definite prescription of hours and minutes and in the arbitrary equivalence of laboratory and classroom work in the ratio of two to one.

There is abundant and increasing evidence of dissatisfaction with this formal definition of the unit in terms of time. It has tended to fix attention upon quantity to the neglect of what is quite as important, the quality of school work. No one will seriously question that the kind of intellectual habits developed by pupils is a more important consideration than the content of courses or the time spent in the classroom. Observation of current school practice also reveals the fact that the unit as now defined has undergone a process of dilution. From the recommendation of the Committee of Ten that fifteen periods of prepared work per week represent the normal work of the secondary-school pupil to the rather mild recommendation of the North Central Association that more than twenty periods should be discouraged, we have documentary evidence of the change that has taken place. The fact is that the normal practice is now to allow pupils to undertake more than four units of work in a year. Many high schools require seventeen or even more units for graduation. It is not unusual to find pupils taking five unit courses, and extreme cases may be cited of pupils taking six or even

more unit courses in a year. If this practice were confined to pupils of exceptional ability and earnestness, the situation would not be so bad ; but school administrators know that pupils who undertake these excessive amounts of work are quite as likely to be those who have failed to accomplish the normal amount of work in previous years and hope in their last year to make up what they have already failed to do, or those who shrewdly desire to have a margin of safety in case they fail in one study. This tendency, so plainly to be discerned, cannot fail to lower the standard of attainment in the various courses in quantity as well as in quality.

There are other factors which are worthy of passing mention as affecting the validity of the quantitative definition of the unit, such as the practice of allowing pupils in the upper years of the high school to take elementary courses in foreign languages, mathematics, etc. with classes composed mainly of less mature pupils, and of requiring the same number of periods for small classes in advanced subjects as are required of large classes in the more elementary courses. That these tendencies are introducing elements which demand careful consideration is seen in a report of the North Central Association Committee on the "Reorganization of the Secondary School and the Definition of the Unit." To meet these tendencies some schools are giving diminished credit for elementary courses taken in the later years of the high school.

Originally the requirements for admission to college were definitely prescribed as to both the subjects and the amounts of each required. The first departure from this method of rigid prescription was to offer choices within definite groups ; for example, French or German, physics or chemistry, ancient or American history. At present a method growing in the extent of its use offers choices of groups or sequences which allow very wide flexibility in the subjects presented for admission. A few colleges make no requirements of specific



subjects whatever, but require only that a student be a graduate of an approved school.

A new principle has been adopted recently which allows a certain number of units from any subjects that an approved school counts toward graduation. This "free margin" varies in extent from one to fifteen units in different institutions. The bulletin on "College Entrance Requirements" of the Bureau of Education gives a list of institutions employing this method, including twenty-eight colleges of liberal arts, ten colleges of engineering, and seven colleges of agriculture. Other institutions have since adopted this method.

The entrance requirements of The University of Chicago illustrate the group or sequence method combined with the free margin. These requirements are stated as follows:

Students applying for entrance to The University of Chicago present by certificate from approved schools, or by examination, 15 units of entrance credits. These must include:

1. 3 units of English.

2. One principal sequence of three or more units and a secondary sequence of two or more units selected from among the following groups: (1) Greek, (2) Latin, (2) Modern Language other than English, (4) History, Civics, and Economics, (5) Mathematics, (6) Physics, Chemistry, Botany, Zoölogy, General Biology, Physiology, Physiography, Geology, Astronomy. To form a language group the units must be all in one language. In other groups any combination of subjects may be made. Credit is not given for less than one unit each in Algebra, Plane Geometry, Physics, Chemistry, or a language. In Latin two units must be offered if the subject is to be continued in college.

Of the 15 units offered for entrance at least 10 must be selected from the subjects in groups 1 to 6. Not less than  $\frac{1}{2}$  unit may be offered in any subject.

3. The remaining 5 units may be selected from any subjects for which credit toward graduation is given by the approved school from which the student receives his diploma.

**Methods of securing admission to college.** We have discussed the relationship between the secondary schools and the college in respect to the requirements for admission, showing

how these have expanded from the narrow and rigidly defined requirements which were in general use up to the beginning of the rapid expansion of the high school which followed the Civil War, until they now include in many cases all the subjects comprised in the extensive programs of the cosmopolitan high school. The second important relationship between the secondary school and the college is closely related to this, having to do with the method of securing admission from the lower to the higher school.

Up to less than fifty years ago the method universally employed was the examination. The papers were prepared and the examinations conducted at the individual colleges. So long as the number of colleges was small and their students came from relatively restricted and contiguous areas, this method offered no serious difficulties of administration; but as the number of colleges and secondary schools increased, this method became more and more unwieldy and burdensome. The minute and exacting variations in the requirements of different colleges made the problem peculiarly complex and difficult for the secondary school. The rigid barrier set up by the entrance examination as conducted by the individual college came to be a hindrance to the close and vital relationship which was necessary to the highest efficiency of both institutions, particularly when the scope of public education was expanded to include the university supported by the state. To meet the needs of a closer relationship between the parts of the entire educational system the method of admission by certificate was devised. In 1871 the University of Michigan introduced the so-called accrediting system, by which graduates of an approved secondary school were admitted without examination on certificate of the principal that they had met the requirements of the university.

**The examination method.** The examination method undertakes to determine the fitness for college work by testing the candidate in the subjects presented to meet the requirements

for admission. Until recently an examination was required in every subject presented. These examinations came to be divided into preliminary and final groups, which the candidate took in two successive years, although he was sometimes allowed to select examinations from the entire field of preparation at will and to take them over a longer period of years. The inevitable tendency in the case of the pupils who were looking forward to college entrance was to make the passing of an examination the most important end of education.

This attitude has not been confined to the pupil alone, but has undoubtedly controlled to a considerable degree the choice of material and the methods of instruction employed in schools in which pupils have been preparing for colleges which require examinations. This effect has been particularly noticeable in the secondary schools of the East, where it has led to the establishment of a large number of schools whose aim has been dominated by this purpose and whose success has been expressed in the percentage of successful candidates in the examinations. It has further led to the establishment of special tutoring schools whose ability to get over the barrier of the college examinations any boy whose intelligence was above the moron level and who could pay the necessary fees has been generally known.

**The comprehensive examination.** The colleges have recognized the results of this tendency as deleterious to their work. A new method, known as the comprehensive examination, has been devised to counteract the injurious tendency or, at least, to make it possible for able students who come from schools not specializing in training for examination to secure admission. Harvard introduced this as an alternative plan in 1911, after an extensive study which showed that the method of admission employed up to that time tended largely to restrict the successful candidates to those prepared in schools of a certain type (mainly private schools) and from a limited area. It was also found that these students, once

admitted, often proved to be of mediocre ability; whereas students from other schools who did not fully meet the requirements, admitted with conditions, often proved better prepared for college work.

The detailed plan as adopted by Harvard is as follows:

1. To be admitted to Harvard College a candidate must present evidence of an approved school course satisfactorily completed; and

2. Must show in four examinations, as explained below, that his scholarship is of a satisfactory quality.

A candidate must present to the Committee on Admission evidence of his secondary school work in the form of an official statement showing

(a) The subjects studied by him and the ground covered.

(b) The amount of time devoted to each.

(c) The quality of his work in each subject.

To be approved, this statement must show

(a) That the candidate's secondary school course has extended over four years.

(b) That his course has been concerned chiefly with languages, science, mathematics, and history, no one of which has been omitted.

(c) That two of the studies of his school program have been pursued beyond their elementary stages.

If the official detailed statement presented by the candidate shows that he has satisfactorily completed an approved secondary school course, he may present himself for examinations in four subjects as follows:

(a) English, (b) Latin, or for the degree of B.S., French or German, (c) Mathematics or Physics or Chemistry, (d) any subject not selected under (a) or (c) from the following list: Greek, French, German, History, Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry.

The four examinations must be taken at one time, either in June or September.

This new method allows more freedom to the secondary school in the organization of its curricula and is designed to test the power of the candidate to use the training received in four representative subjects, selected by himself within certain limitations. Its immediate results at Harvard were the admission of students from a wider geographical area, from a larger number of schools, particularly public high schools, and

a level of scholarship on the part of those thus admitted higher than that secured by those admitted by the old plan. A number of other colleges have since adopted the plan, in some cases with unimportant modifications, and practically all colleges admit students who desire to be examined in this manner.

**The psychological examination.** A new form of examination, intended to test the general intelligence of the candidate, was first used at Columbia in 1919. This was the direct outgrowth of the use of intelligence tests in the army. The annual reports of Columbia University for 1919 contain the following statements regarding its use:

The new method is based upon the principle that fitness for college is determined by (1) Preparation, (2) Character and Promise, (3) Health, and (4) Intelligence.

(1) As evidence of preparation, the candidate must submit his complete secondary school record. In order to be considered satisfactory, this record must cover fully the requirements for admission. It must show grades at least as high as those required by the school for certification in the case of students entering college by certificate. The school itself must be of high standing.

(2) Evidence of character and promise is supplied in his principal's recommendation and in his application for admission. The usual certificate of good moral character is very considerably amplified and is in the following form. (See opposite page.) It will be noted that estimates of intellectual, moral, and social qualities are called for as well as the principal's judgment of the candidate's ability to do college work.

The new application form, which like the new form for the principal's recommendation must be filed by all candidates, calls for a very considerable amount of information regarding the candidate's interests and activities and his part in the life of the school. Aside from the usual data regarding his date of birth and school, he supplies information on the following points:

Place of birth

Religious affiliation

Father's name

Father's place of birth

Father's occupation



TO THE PRINCIPAL

Mr. \_\_\_\_\_ has applied for admission to Columbia College. We are very desirous of having information regarding the following list of qualities. In estimating his rating in each will you kindly take as the standard the boys graduating from secondary schools the country over, making due allowance for any decided difference from the general level which may characterize your own school.

Put a cross (X) in the appropriate spaces to indicate the rating of the candidate in the several qualities.

	ABOVE THE AVERAGE			BELOW THE AVERAGE		
	Mark- edly	Dis- tinctly	Doubt- fully	Doubt- fully	Dis- tinctly	Mark- edly
Native Ability . . . . .						
Industry and Faithfulness						
Originality . . . . .						
Integrity . . . . .						
Straightforwardness . .						
Clean-mindedness . . .						
Fair Play . . . . .						
Public Spirit . . . . .						
Interest in Fellows . . .						
Leadership . . . . .						

REMARKS

I certify that the candidate possesses in my judgment the qualities listed above to the degrees there indicated.  
I certify that he is a person of good moral character.  
I recommend him as a young man of good ability, well prepared to do college work.

Signed \_\_\_\_\_ Principal  
School \_\_\_\_\_

School activities, including:

- School publications
- Musical and other organizations
- Athletics
- Patriotic activities
- Debating
- Offices
- Prizes and honors

Activities outside of the school, including:

- Remunerative employment or work for parents without wage
- Patriotic activities
- Religious and other organizations
- Outside reading — amount and fields — with the names of a number of books and other publications read.

The candidate is required to give at least three references and to write a letter telling why he wishes to go to college, why he selected Columbia, and what he expects to make of himself. What the student does out of class and among his fellows is quite as important as his school record in determining his fitness for a college education.

(3) As in the old method of admission, he files his complete health record.

(4) If his records are satisfactory in all respects, he is permitted, upon application, to substitute the intelligence examination for the entrance examinations. His record of preparation, if acceptable, is taken as covering the requirements in subject matter. The mental test is taken as a test of his capacity to do college work. These, with his health record and what might be called his character record, together furnish the basis on which his fitness to be a Columbia College student is determined.

The use of psychological tests to determine the intellectual fitness of candidates to do college work at Columbia has shown these to be more effective than other methods employed. Dr. Wood in 1920 made a study of the correlations of college records with the records of the college-entrance examinations, the secondary-school records, Regents examinations, and psychological examinations with the following striking results :

Secondary-school record and college record, correlation, 33.

College-entrance examination and college record, correlation, 43.

Regents examinations and college record, correlation, 57.

Psychological examination and college record, correlation, 59.

The success with which the psychological examination has been used at Columbia and an increasing number of other colleges indicates that this new instrument is likely to supersede the traditional subject-matter examination as a more valid instrument for determining the intellectual fitness of students to meet the requirements of college work.

**The certificate method of admission.** The certificate method of admission to college naturally originated in the West, where education from the kindergarten through the university was first conceived as a function of the State. This conception, consistently carried out, implies the closest possible relationship of understanding and coöperation between each of the several parts of the entire system. There is no reason why promotion from the high school to the college should rest upon any basis essentially different from that of promotion from the elementary school to the high school. In its operation the certificate system involves the requirement that a school shall meet certain standards guaranteeing the quality of its work, and that the individual pupil shall meet the standards of the school. In the beginning the college determined the standards for the school and its own requirements for admission, leaving to the school the decision as to whether the pupil had met the standards imposed. As applied in certain parts of the country the certificate is still administered on this basis. In the West, however, particularly in the area represented by the North Central Association, the schools and colleges have come to share mutually the rights and responsibilities of setting standards for the schools and, to a considerable degree, for the colleges as well.

After its adoption by Michigan the certificate method met with wide approval, especially in the West. In 1896 the United States Commissioner of Education reported that it had been adopted by 42 state universities and agricultural and mechanical colleges and about 150 other institutions. It is at

present employed in all higher institutions except Columbia, Harvard, the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Princeton, Yale, and five women's colleges: Bryn Mawr, Mount Holyoke, Smith, Vassar, and Wellesley.

It is to be noted that the comprehensive examination as administered at Harvard and the psychological examination at Columbia involve the certificate as an essential part of these plans. The latest step taken at Harvard, by which students in the highest seventh of their class in an approved school are admitted without examination, accepts the method in principle, with limitations based on the school's judgment of the candidate's attainment in scholarship.

The methods of administering the system of accrediting schools have from the first differed in different states. In Michigan each school was inspected by one or two members of the university faculty, on whose favorable report the school was accredited for a period of from one to three years. In California the school was visited each year by representatives of several university departments. Indiana turned over the accrediting of schools to the State Board of Education of nine members, consisting of the heads of three institutions of higher education, the superintendents of schools of the three largest cities, and "three citizens of prominence actually engaged in educational work in the state, appointed by the governor." The large and increasing amount of time required of university officers to carry out the labor of inspection of the rapidly growing number of high schools and the expense incurred by the universities in this work led to the creation of the office of state high-school inspector, who has usually been an officer of the state university.

Of late there has been evidence of growing dissatisfaction with the methods of high-school inspection, and this has found expression in legislative action in several states, which have taken this function from the state universities and placed it in the hands of the state departments of education.

State Superintendent Ross of Kansas in his annual report for 1913 gives the reasons urged for this action:

As a matter of fact, the standardization of high schools for college entrance requirements, for certificating privileges, for state aid, and for all other purposes should be under the control of the State Board of Education, and no other agency should be permitted to attempt it. The reasons for this are obvious. Such a plan would be more systematic; it would be more uniform; it would be more economical; it would be just; and it would be more effective than any system of partial or divided supervision could possibly be.

While the transfer of the duties of inspection and accrediting to the state department may perhaps lead to greater uniformity and mechanical efficiency, it is open to question whether the loss of the opportunity for close and vital relationship between the high schools and the colleges which inspection by college officers has afforded will not more than offset any gain that may result from placing this function under the control of the state department of education.

**The examination and certificate methods contrasted.** The fundamental difference between the examination and certificate methods of admission is that the former examines the individual student, the latter examines the school. It is claimed that the examination method provides for the prospective candidate a more effective incentive for faithful work and for the college a more reliable basis for judgment as to the quality of his preparation. There is considerable evidence that such is not the case. The report of the New England College Entrance Certificate Board for 1917 gives statistics showing that in each of the preceding eight years those students who had entered by certificate the colleges represented on the Board had a lower percentage of failure in the subjects continued in college than those who had entered the same institutions by examination. Wood's correlations, however, show a closer correlation of college records with the examination marks than with school records.



The weaknesses of the examination method as regards its effect both upon the secondary school and upon the college are brought out clearly in the discussion of the new method of admission to Harvard College in the reports of the president of that institution for the years 1908-1909 and 1909-1910. The following are excerpts from the reports of Mr. Hart, chairman of the committee on admission:

As a means of selecting students, our present scheme not only limits our range of choice but bases our choice on a wrong principle — namely, quantity of work instead of quality of work, — thus inevitably bringing into college large numbers of young men who have no intellectual interests and who retard the development of the college.

As an educational agent the present scheme retards the growth of the schools by compelling them to follow a course which deprives them of the interest and sympathies of the communities from which must come the money for better equipment and better-paid teachers.

Our present scheme depresses the individual teacher in two ways. (1) It tends to deprive him — or, her — of initiative and responsibility by marking out both what she shall teach and how she shall teach it, and (2) it confines her in any subject within narrow limits by marking a final point beyond which she cannot go. The requirements are like a horizontal line drawn across the subjects of the curriculum.

As an educational agent, our present scheme tends to create in the young man under its influence a wrong attitude of mind toward study and toward college; for it emphasizes material gain at the expense of good quality of work.

As a social agent, our present scheme tends to cut short the school life of great numbers of children, and to exert an influence not always good upon movements of population and the vocations of men and women. This is the most important aspect to consider; for it is from a sense of the defects of college admission requirements as social agents that the present dissatisfaction with them chiefly arises.

These incisive statements, in criticism of the examination method in the form in which it is still generally employed, are most significant as coming from an officer of the institution in which this method has been longest in use.

On the other hand there is no doubt that the certificate method is easily subject to abuse and that constant pressure

is necessary to prevent the certification of those who are not capable of satisfactory work in college. A letter addressed to principals of secondary schools by the registrar of the University of Michigan in 1916 is evidence of this fact. He says,

Of the 811 freshmen who entered this college in September, 1915, fifty-five per cent earned during the first semester satisfactory grades in all their courses, while forty-five per cent did not. It seems proper, therefore, to suggest more careful discrimination in recommending graduates. The admission certificate is a partnership which originated at this university; and its successful working depends upon full and hearty coöperation on the part of the university and the school, to whom the authority to pass upon quality has been delegated.

Many schools undertake to safeguard the quality of their certificate by requiring a higher standing for certification than for graduation. This practice is based on the assumption that pupils should be graduated from the secondary school whose work is not of sufficiently high quality to warrant their undertaking college work. Its use is further justified by the incentive which it doubtless affords to pupils of good ability who might otherwise enter college with poor habits of work or with their interest centered largely on the social attractions of college life. The college is also relieved of some whose presence would be of small advantage to the students themselves and of positive damage to the work of the institution.

By placing the emphasis on the fitness of the individual to carry on the work of college courses, the examination method of admission has tended (1) to restrict the range of high-school work to the limited field of the traditional subjects required for admission to college and (2) to set up as the standard of attainment, both for pupils and for teachers, the passing of an examination.

The certificate method places its emphasis upon the quality of the school. Under this system, in a large part of the country, the colleges not only have been sympathetic with the

movement for the expansion of the work of the schools, but have vigorously promoted it. The certificate method as employed in the East, however, has been influenced in large degree by the long-established attitude of the college.

Some colleges have placed restrictions on the acceptance of certificates intended to prevent the admission of poorly prepared students. The University of Chicago admits by certificate only those graduates of approved schools whose average marks in high school exceed the passing mark by 25 per cent of the difference between the passing mark and 100. For example, from a school whose passing mark is 60 no student would be admitted whose average mark is below 70. An interesting variation on the usual requirements for certification is seen in the action taken by Dartmouth College. The following is quoted from a letter of Dean Laycock to the principals of high schools:

Beginning with the year 1921 any student from an approved school, graduating with an average in scholarship for the four years of his school course which places him in the first quarter of his class, and offering three units of English (the regular college preparatory course in composition and literature) and two and one-half units of Mathematics (one and one-half units of Algebra and one unit of Plane Geometry) among his list of subjects, will be admitted without conditions.

This action has been taken on the ground that the high-grade school boy will usually continue his good work in college; that the first-class student, deciding at a late date to take a college course, should be given all possible consideration; and that men qualifying under the conditions laid down should find the step from school to college natural, simple and devoid of unnecessary formalities.

The real difference between the examination and certificate systems is not so much a matter of method as of a fundamental conception of the function of the school and the college. The examination method is based upon the assumption that the high school and the college are distinct and separate institutions and that the college is concerned with the high school only as a source of supply of students prepared

to meet its self-imposed standards. The temptation is too strong to resist the insidious suggestion that the college has been more concerned over the quality of its raw material than of its finished product. The certificate method, in its best form, regards the school and the college as essential parts of a continuous system of education.

**Character qualifications of students.** There is a growing tendency, not alone in connection with the comprehensive and psychological examinations, to secure from principals information regarding the special characteristics of students, their habits of work, and their dominant interests, social and intellectual, as an additional basis for determining their fitness for admission to college and, presumably, for the purpose of helping those admitted to make proper adjustments to the new environment of college life. Just what use, if any, is made of this to secure the latter result is not always clear. Some principals have had unpleasant personal experiences as a result of an indiscriminate or tactless use of this information by college officers. In other cases it has appeared that administrative officers or group advisers have given valuable assistance, on the basis of these reports, to young students entering upon a life which at its best is complex and without the restraints to which they have been accustomed.

Another form of coöperation which has proved of considerable value is found in the reports which many colleges send to the schools of the work of their graduates during their first year in the higher institution. Those which give only the record of the work of the student, with no basis of comparison of his work with that of the class group of which he is a member, are of small value except as they show whether or not he has met the standard required for passing the courses. Some colleges have adopted a form of report giving discriminating information of great value to high-school officers. An actual report of the work of a student at the University of Illinois is given on the next page.

# UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS

## URBANA

Report of \_\_\_\_\_, a Graduate of the  
\_\_\_\_\_ High School in 1914

FOR THE UNIVERSITY YEAR 1914-1915

[The passing grade is 70 ; any grade below 70 indicates a failure.]  
[A " credit hour " is the work of one class period a week for a semester of 18 weeks, each class period presupposing two hours' preparation, or the equivalent in laboratory, field, or shop practice.]

SUBJECT	FIRST SEMESTER				SECOND SEMESTER			
	Credit Hours	Grade	Class Average	H. S. Average	Credit Hours	Grade	Class Average	H. S. Average
G. E. D. 1	4	81	82					
Mathematics 2, 6	3	90	78.4	77	5	84	84.9	77
Mathematics 4	2	96	80.6					
Mechanical Eng. 75	1	83	87.0					
Rhetoric 1, 2	3	83	77.3	70	3	80	80.2	70
Military 2a, 2b	1	100	91.3		1	100	94.7	
Phys. Tr. 1-1a, 2	1	90	97.3		1	100	94.7	
M. E. 77	2	100 70	82.7					
German 4					4	85	81.9	64
Military 1					1	79	83.5	
Economics 22					3	84	82.7	

Student's average grade for the freshman year: 85.2

Student's average in the high school (from the certificate): 75



**Standardizing organizations.** With the increase in the number of candidates for college admission and the widening of the area from which colleges drew their students, there arose the need for generally accepted standards and a more effective and economical administration of college admission. To meet these needs numerous organizations have developed, some of which have exerted a powerful influence upon both secondary and higher education. There are five regional associations of colleges and secondary schools, representing New England, the middle states and Maryland, the north central states, the southern states, and the north-western states. There are also the New England College Entrance Certificate Board, through which a group of New England colleges handle the routine of certification, and the College Entrance Examination Board, which has become a clearing house for the conduct of practically all entrance examinations now given.

**The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.** The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools is typical of the best, both in purpose and achievement, of the voluntary associations of schools and colleges. It includes eighteen states from Ohio to Colorado. In 1922 there were included in the association 141 colleges and 1423 secondary schools, the latter enrolling more than 500,000 pupils.

The following official statement indicates the purposes of the association:

The aim of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools is, first, to bring about a better acquaintance, a keener sympathy, and a heartier coöperation between the colleges and secondary schools of this territory; second, to consider common educational problems and to devise best ways and means of solving them; and third, to promote the physical, intellectual, and moral well-being of students by urging proper sanitary conditions of school buildings, adequate library and laboratory facilities, and higher standards of scholarship and of remuneration of teachers. The Association is a voluntary organization

consisting of representatives of both secondary schools and colleges. It is devoted solely to the highest welfare of the boys and girls of this territory, and it bespeaks the cordial and sympathetic support of all school men.

Membership is of two kinds, institutional and individual. The former consists of colleges and secondary schools on the approved lists. The number of individual members is so small as to be almost negligible. The work of the association is done mainly through commissions composed of representatives of the schools and colleges, subject to the approval of the whole association. The Commission on Secondary Schools is made up of the following persons from each state represented in the association: the high-school examiner of the state university, the inspector of high schools, a principal of a high school, and in addition eighteen other persons to be elected at large. This commission is responsible, subject to the approval of the association, for the standards for secondary schools and for the inspection and approval of secondary schools. As indicating the mutual comity between school and college, mention should be made of the Commission on Institutions of Higher Learning, composed of representatives of both secondary schools and colleges, which performs exactly the same functions with respect to standards and inspection of colleges as the Commission on Secondary Schools exercises for the lower schools.

The standards for secondary schools include the following items:

1. A minimum school year of thirty-six weeks.
2. Academic and professional training of teachers to include graduation from a standard college and a semester in education.
3. A maximum teaching-load of six periods per day.
4. Adequate laboratory and library facilities and satisfactory hygienic conditions in the construction, equipment, and care of buildings.

The following standard, quoted in full, shows to what extent an attempt is made to improve the quality of the school in particulars which cannot be measured in definite quantitative terms.

The efficiency of instruction, the acquired habits of thought and study, the general intellectual and moral tone of a school are paramount factors, and therefore only schools which rank well in these particulars, as evidenced by rigid, thoroughgoing, sympathetic inspection, shall be considered eligible for the list.

The reports of the commissions of the association and various published investigations of administrative problems connected with the relations of the college and secondary school provide a valuable body of material for the school administrator.

**The College Entrance Examination Board.** The College Entrance Examination Board was organized in 1900 to act as a clearing house for the conduct of examinations for admission to college. Up to this time each college had given its own examinations, at first on its own premises; later the practice developed among a few of the larger institutions of conducting their examinations simultaneously at other convenient centers. This plan became increasingly inconvenient and expensive both for the colleges and for the candidates. For a number of years after 1900 the colleges continued to hold their own examinations; but at the present time most colleges have given over entirely to the board the conduct of their examinations, and the results of these examinations are accepted by all colleges in the country.

In 1922 the board was composed of representatives of thirty-four colleges and universities, of which twenty are situated in the middle states and Maryland, eight in Massachusetts, two each in Connecticut and Ohio, and one each in New Hampshire and Rhode Island. There are also ten representatives of secondary schools.

The scope of the board's activity is shown by the following figures taken from the twenty-second annual report for 1922:

Examinations were given to 18,231 candidates (12,489 boys and 5742 girls) from schools in every state except Nevada, and in Hawaii, Canada, the Canal Zone, England, France, Holland, Italy, Japan, and Switzerland. These examinations were given at 239 different places in forty-two states and at seven places outside the United States. Of the total number of candidates for this year, 80% were from schools situated in the New England and Central states while only 29% were from schools in the North Central, Southern, and Western States; similarly 90% desired admission to colleges in the New England and Central states. The staff required to carry on the work of the Board consisted of 1354 persons, including 12 permanent employees, 80 examiners, 554 readers, 570 supervisors and proctors, and 138 temporary clerks and assistants. The total expense for the year was \$148,641.

The Board performs a very useful service by offering to those desiring admission to our colleges an opportunity to take examinations at convenient centers in any part of the world. In performing this function it acts merely as an agent for the individual colleges, which receive the reports of the examinations and decide, each for itself, the standards on which candidates are admitted or rejected.

**The junior college.** The very rapid growth in the number of students entering college has proved a serious embarrassment to the higher institutions in attempting to provide suitable instruction and equipment to meet the needs of their increasing enrollment. This growth, checked temporarily during the war, has been renewed to an almost alarming degree. The number of first-year students in several institutions is in excess of 3000, and practically all colleges show the same proportional increase. An elaborate survey of the University of Minnesota on the growth of the university for the next quarter-century reaches the conclusion that in 1945 there will be a total registration of 15,000 students, of whom it is conservatively estimated 4500 will be first-year students. The situation is such as to demand careful planning and

vigorous action on the part of college administrators throughout the country, and vitally concerns the relations which are to exist between the high school and the college.

While the upward extension of the high school in the form of the junior college has had its origin in a variety of considerations not primarily related to the increase in attendance upon the higher schools, the embarrassing situation in which the colleges find themselves seems likely to give added impetus to this new form of organization. The junior-college movement is based on considerations analogous to those which underlie the development of the junior high school. Professor Lange of the University of California, who was closely identified with the movement in the state in which the junior college has reached its highest development, says:

The rise and progress of the junior college must be regarded as an integral phase of a country-wide movement toward a more adequate state system of education, a system that shall function progressively so as to secure for the nation the greatest efficiency of the greatest numbers. The evolution of the junior college is casually connected with the other constituent phases of the whole process of reorganization and adaptive changes. It is inseparable from three of these: (1) the adjustment of the university to secondary education; (2) the reorganization of secondary education, to make it more effective, for all alike, during the whole period of adolescence; (3) the movement to equalize educational opportunities by the creation of lower and middle systems of vocational training. In the light of this situation the junior college appears as a normal development within a state school system in the making, and this in turn is itself being shaped largely by factors and forces that are national and even world-wide in scope.

The junior college extends the high school to cover the first two years of college work. Its successful operation in a considerable number of schools in California and Texas and in a smaller number in other parts of the country, particularly in the Middle West, suggests the possibility that our secondary school may ultimately include the eight years from the seventh grade through the second college year.



**Summary.** The administrative relationship between the secondary school and the college has to do chiefly with the preparation required and the method of securing admission to college. There has been a tendency, most marked in recent years, to enlarge the scope of subjects accepted for admission to include in many instances any subject offered in the secondary school. The secondary school is thus given opportunity to organize its curricula to meet the needs of its pupils, without distinction between those who are preparing for college and those who are not. The examination method of admission, once employed exclusively, has given place (except in a few colleges) to the certificate method, which has come to be administered for the most part by standardizing organizations of schools and colleges. The certificate method has tended toward a closer and more sympathetic relation between the school and the college. The comprehensive examinations and the psychological tests have combined many of the advantages claimed for the examination method alone and for the certificate method alone. The upward extension of the high school to include the first two years of college work is an effort to bridge the gap between the secondary school and the college comparable with the junior high school at the lower level. This expansion of the secondary school from four to eight years enlarges greatly the responsibility of the high-school principal and requires of him a much broader professional training than he has been accustomed to receive.

### PROBLEMS AND QUESTIONS

1. Why has the high school been more responsive to social demands than the college?
2. What can be done to check the tendency of pupils whose work has been poor to take an excessive number of courses in their last year?
3. Make out three possible combinations of courses by which a student might enter The University of Chicago. What criticism would you make of any one of these?

4. What objections can you raise to the tutoring school?
5. In what respects is the new method of admission to Harvard superior to the old examination method?
6. Do you consider the psychological examination method as administered at Columbia superior to any other method of admission yet employed? Support your answer.
7. From the point of view of the high school what are the advantages of the certificate method of admission to college? What are its disadvantages?
8. How may the standards of the North Central Association tend to the improvement of the high school?
9. What benefits to the secondary school are secured through the College Entrance Examination Board?
10. What objections may be raised to the extension of the secondary school through the junior college?

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## CHAPTER V

### THE SECONDARY-SCHOOL STAFF

**Training of teachers.** Secondary-school teachers represent a very wide variety with respect to the amount of training, academic and professional, which they have received in preparation for their work. In most states certification of teachers is based upon examination alone and makes no requirement as to years of training or the character of the schools in which the candidates have been trained. California occupies a unique position among the states with its requirement of a college course and an additional year of professional study in education. Ohio requires of teachers in first-grade high schools college graduation and fifteen semester hours of professional training, some or all of which may be taken as undergraduate work in college. In Pennsylvania the standard high-school certificate requires graduation from college and eighteen semester hours of work of college grade in education. In no other state is training to this extent required.

Happily the preparation of most secondary-school teachers is much above the possible minimum allowed by state laws. The growing emphasis upon the needs of higher standards of preparation is causing large numbers of teachers in service to avail themselves of the opportunities for professional training afforded by summer schools and extension courses. Many cities place their requirements above those fixed by state laws. Most important in its effects upon general practice is the influence of several voluntary associations of colleges and secondary schools, notably the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, with its requirement of college graduation and fifteen semester hours of professional

training. In 1920 the New England Association recommended twelve semester hours of professional training in addition to a college degree.

Evenden reports the following facts regarding the high-school teachers of 327 cities having a population of 1000 or more:

#### NUMBER OF YEARS' TRAINING ABOVE THE EIGHTH GRADE

Median . . . . .	8.43 years
Less than six years . . . . .	7 per cent
Eight years . . . . .	82 per cent
Nine years . . . . .	4 per cent

From these figures it will be observed that 82 per cent have had training sufficient, in number of years, to complete a college course and only 7 per cent fall below the number of years necessary to complete the work of the junior college. Only 4 per cent have had any graduate work beyond the college course. It is, however, unsafe to conclude that these figures represent the actual facts regarding the amount of college training of high-school teachers, for there must be a considerable number included, a part or all of whose training above the high school has been received in other institutions than colleges.

**Age, tenure, and salary.** Among other facts with an important bearing on the composition of the teaching population may be mentioned age, length of tenure, and salary. Coffman, in a study of 5215 high-school teachers in twenty-two states, found that 53 per cent of the men and 74 per cent of the women were under thirty years of age. In 1912, in the schools accredited by the North Central Association in five states, the number of teachers new to their positions that year ranged from 37 per cent in Iowa and Missouri to 46 per cent in Wisconsin. Regarding the salary of high-school teachers Evenden gives the following statistics for the year 1918-1919 for 392 cities, which he divides into five geographical groups.

TABLE I. SALARIES OF HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS

	MEDIAN SALARY	Q <sub>1</sub> (25 PER CENT) <sup>1</sup>	Q <sub>3</sub> (75 PER CENT) <sup>2</sup>
Eastern states . . . . .	\$1139	943	1394
Southern states . . . . .	1036	947	1236
Great Lakes . . . . .	1117	917	1424
Great Plains . . . . .	1273	1015	1708
Western states . . . . .	1559	1341	1698
All . . . . .	1244	991	1559

The extreme range in salaries reported was from \$300 or less received by four teachers to \$3000 or more received by two. In New York City the median salary of 932 men was \$2527, and of 1155 women, \$2520.

The disturbed conditions resulting from the war and the demand for workers in other fields offering larger financial returns drew heavily upon the ranks of teachers. The same influences made teaching less attractive to new recruits, as is evidenced by the diminished enrollment of normal schools and by the smaller number of recent graduates of colleges who entered the teaching profession. The resulting shortage of teachers served to focus public attention upon the importance of the schools and the disproportionate salaries of teachers, with the result that since the investigations of Evenden there has been a general and considerable increase in salaries paid throughout the country. With the gradual return of normal conditions the movement for higher professional training of teachers, temporarily checked, has been resumed, and with a higher range of salaries it is probable that teaching will become more attractive to men and women of first-rate ability.

**Selection of teachers.** The selection of the large number of inexperienced teachers is based mainly on subjective judgment. Each vacancy to be filled furnishes the occasion for a

<sup>1</sup> Twenty-five per cent received this salary or less.

<sup>2</sup> Twenty-five per cent received this salary or more.



number of letters of application, accompanied by a sheaf of recommendations, including several from optimistic college professors, whose estimate of the candidate's fitness is based on the quality of the work done in their departments, one from the minister of the home church, and one or two more from lawyer, judge, or physician — all friends of the family. If the application is followed by a personal interview, there is added usually only the superficial impression of a busy principal or superintendent. Not infrequently, however, the successful candidate is the daughter of a local clergyman or a member of the school board, whose special fitness for the position has less weight than the personal pressure brought to bear upon the school officials. Under the circumstances the fact that so few teachers are rated as failures can be accounted for only as a proof of our low standards for estimating the success of teachers.

The situation is not always greatly different in the case of teachers of experience. In the heavy migration of teachers from school to school the tendency is for the superior teachers to move on to better positions. But some of the poorer ones are also on the move and, strangely enough, the letters which they bear are much like those presented by the better sort. Principals sometimes show complete willingness to transfer their own troubles to others. Perhaps it is more charitable to say that faults seem less glaring on the eve of parting. The wise principal will pay little attention to general statements from persons whom he does not know and will seek other means of determining the fitness of those whose appointment he is to recommend. It is a safe rule, to be broken only in exceptional cases, to select no teacher without personal observation of his teaching.

The part played by teachers' agencies in bringing notice to candidates of vacancies to be filled and to employing officers of candidates for these positions should be mentioned at this point. These agencies may render genuine service

both to candidates and to employers. It is to be remembered, however, that their profits are derived mainly from the commissions paid by teachers they place, and that it is natural that they should be more interested in the candidate than in the school to which he goes. The practice of some agencies of recommending a large number of candidates for a position has lessened the confidence of both candidates and employers. The better agencies, however, have established a reputation for trustworthiness, and their recommendations can usually be relied upon.

In recent years colleges and universities, especially those institutions giving professional courses in education, have established bureaus whose services are of great value in placing teachers. Here is kept on file detailed information regarding the training and experience of teachers and administrative officers. It is their practice to give notice of a vacancy only when requested by employing officers and to recommend only such candidates as are thought to be thoroughly qualified for the position. As these bureaus are conducted at the expense of the institution and receive no financial return for their service, they are free from the commercial aspect which is a controlling factor in the teachers' agency organized on a business basis.

**Training and selection of principals.** As to the training of high-school principals and the experience they have had previous to their first election to a principalship, there is no published data on which to base a conclusion. In the absence of other legal standards it is to be assumed that the qualifications of a principal are the same in law as those of high-school teachers. If one were to ask a group of twenty-five principals each to state what training he had when he first became a principal, the answers would be almost certain to include the following: (1) academic training up to college graduation in most cases but not all; (2) no professional training in most cases, one or more undergraduate courses in

some, normal-school graduation in the cases in which the academic training was not received in college. In regard to previous experience the answers would include the following: (1) none in a few cases in which the principal has gone to his position directly after the completion of his college course; (2) principalship of a country school or an elementary school; (3) a year or more of teaching in a high school; (4) headship of a department in a high school. Of the relatively small number of graduate students in professional schools of education, a considerable percentage of principals are found taking their first professional courses. Many a callow youth, his college course just completed, has entered upon the duties of the principalship with no additional qualification except, perhaps, the promise of executive ability based upon his own self-assurance and conceit. Those whose early promise has been measurably fulfilled by experience or who have developed an aptitude for practical politics have been promoted to higher positions, leaving their former places to be filled by others of the same sort. The author's observations are here autobiographical; for he became principal of a high school in a New England city of eight thousand population, fresh from college, never having sat for a single day in a public high school, either as pupil, teacher, or visitor, and having no other experience than that gained by teaching an ungraded country school for a term of eleven weeks.

The methods of selecting principals in larger cities vary considerably. In one of our largest cities vacancies are most often filled by the promotion of an elementary-school principal. An intimate acquaintance with the work of the lower schools has been pointed out as most desirable, but this method of selection would not seem to assure such expert knowledge of the problems of the high school as is necessary for its successful administration. Another of our largest cities secures its principals by the promotion of department heads in its own system. This method of rewarding efficient service

doubtless furnishes valuable incentive to members of the staff, but it is doubtful whether long service in performing the duties usually assigned to heads of departments gives the broad grasp of the problems of secondary education which the principalship demands. Indeed, it would seem more likely to tend toward a process of inbreeding altogether detrimental. The most common practice consists in seeking for principals from those who have shown excellence as heads of smaller schools and who are easily attracted by even a relatively small increase in salary. The resulting short period of tenure of high-school principals, with its accompanying waste, has its partial compensation in the incentive to secure professional training and to develop initiative and originality which this migration from lower-paid to better-paid positions affords.

Numerous writers have discussed the qualities which go to make up the ideal principal. These genial essayists would combine in the principal such qualities as self-confidence, common sense, understanding of human nature, personality, judicial-mindedness, honesty, generosity, and many other similar virtues. In contemplating such a paragon of virtues the prospective principal might well be discouraged were it not for the fact that any or all of these desirable natural qualifications may be cultivated to a degree, and that professional training, not hitherto greatly emphasized by such writers, can make up to a considerable extent for defects of natural social endowment. He should also realize that such training is absolutely essential if these qualities of leadership are to be effective in the actual management of a school.

**Rating and promotion of teachers.** The method commonly employed for determining the promotion of teachers in service is on a scarcely more scientific basis than that used in their selection. Boyce studied the methods of measuring teachers' efficiency in 242 representative cities with populations of ten thousand or more in all parts of the country. He

found 14 of these employing promotional examinations, 133 with a schedule of qualities on which teachers are judged, 99 with schemes for grading the efficiency of teachers, and 98 with no defined methods for arriving at a judgment of a teacher's fitness for promotion.

The method of promotional examinations includes extension or residence courses in professional schools, the presentation of theses or digests of professional reading, or regular examinations on professional or academic subjects. Eligibility to these examinations usually depends on the number of years the teacher has taught and the success of her previous work. This method is of undoubted value in the incentive which it gives to professional improvement, particularly if the study is in close relation to the teacher's regular school work.

The method of rating teachers is more generally employed. It is apparent, however, that this method as used is commonly superficial and fails to take into account the relative importance of the various factors involved in effective teaching.

In a large majority of the school systems reporting, Boyce found that the rating of teachers was determined by the "general impression" of the rating officer. Retention or promotion then depends upon no objective standards, but merely upon the unsupported opinion of the principal or superintendent. The terms used in rating teachers were found to include a total of twenty-two adjectives besides various designations by letters, figures, and percentages. The smallest number of categories employed was two, satisfactory and unsatisfactory, whereas in one case as many as seven were used. The most common practice involved the use of four categories.

The specific qualities on which teachers are rated run into a surprising number. Boyce found from an examination of fifty rating schemes as many as one hundred and fifty, which he reduced to fifty by combining those which evidently



referred to the same quality. If the relative value which these qualities are thought to have is indicated by the frequency with which they are found in these schemes, it will be concluded that discipline, which was included in all but one, is regarded as most important. Instructional skill was included in only thirty of the fifty, and results secured in only eight. These facts are evidence of the statement made above as to the failure to give due consideration to the relative importance of the elements of good teaching.

A considerable number of score cards for rating teachers are available. That issued by the Department of Public Instruction of the State of Indiana has three headings, to which are assigned the following values:

Teaching-power	. . . . .	45 points
Government	. . . . .	35 points
General characteristics	. . . . .	35 points

Elliott's plan for the measure of merit of teachers contains eight major categories, each of which is subdivided, making a total of forty-two separate items, to each of which is given a numerical value, the total aggregating one thousand possible units.

Boyce has prepared a score card with forty-five items under the five general categories: (1) personal equipment, (2) social and professional equipment, (3) school management, (4) technique of teaching, (5) results. Instead of assigning numerical values to the different items, the card is arranged with ten vertical columns, in which the various items are checked, and lines connecting the various checks give a graphic representation of the results.

A rating scale for judging teachers in service, prepared by H. O. Rugg, presents some features not found in any of the other scales. The scale consists of two parts: Form A, for analyzing and rating the teacher's qualities by the teacher himself and by the administrator; Form B, for principals and

superintendents in the rating of teachers. Form A consists of an analysis of the qualities of merit of the teacher under five headings: (1) skill in teaching, (2) skill in the mechanics of managing a class, (3) teamwork qualities, (4) qualities of growth and keeping up to date, (5) personal and social qualities. The arrangement of the detailed items under each general head in the form of questions is a distinct improvement over other scales, in which these items are presented in topical form. The portion dealing with skill in teaching, reproduced on page 80, gives a clear idea of this scale. A check placed opposite in one of three vertical columns indicates the degree in which the teacher possesses each specific quality.

Form B is based on the method developed in the army for rating officers. It provides a method of direct comparison by which a teacher is rated on each of the five different groups of qualities by direct comparison with five other teachers, whose names have been given definite positions on the scale. These five teachers are selected to represent respectively (1) the best teacher the rater has ever known, (2) the teacher midway between the best and the average, (3) the average, (4) the teacher midway between the average and the poorest, (5) the poorest. A definite number of points is assigned to each of these positions on the scale. One of the five sections of the scale is given below, with fictitious names to indicate the form in which the completed scale would appear:

## SKILL IN TEACHING

Best . . . . .	38 . . . . .	<i>Smith</i>
Better than average . . . . .	30 . . . . .	<i>Jones</i>
Average . . . . .	22 . . . . .	<i>Brown</i>
Poorer than average . . . . .	14 . . . . .	<i>Black</i>
Poorest . . . . .	6 . . . . .	<i>Wheeler</i>

Similarly, each of the five groups of qualities is reduced to a scale containing names of known teachers possessing the qualities in the degrees indicated. In using the completed

## SKILL IN TEACHING

To what extent does he know the subject matter of his own and related fields?

1. In subjects like history, geography, etc. does he make effective use of material outside the textbook?
2. Does he relate lessons to material in other fields and use illustrations outside his own subject (for example, mathematics and science)?

To what extent does he select subject matter effectively for class reading and discussion?

To what extent are his aims of teaching clearly defined?

To what extent does he give evidence of having

1. Formulated clearly his aims of teaching, as shown by his written statement of aims and outcomes?
2. Planned his lessons specifically to carry these out?
3. Distinguished clearly between (1) formal skill (in either manual or academic subjects), (2) information, and (3) problem-solving as proper outcomes from his class work?
4. Given pupils clear ideas of the purposes of lessons?

To what extent is he skillful in conducting the class discussion?

1. Resourcefulness in organizing a discussion and in thinking on his feet.
  - a. Is he fertile and quick in taking advantage of pupils' questions?
  - b. Are his questions systematically planned, yet spontaneously given?
  - c. Does he express himself clearly?
2. Skill in conducting drill exercises.
  - a. Does he make use of economical timed drill-devices (such as Courtis's Practice Exercises etc.)?
  - b. Does he properly subordinate drill to clear exposition; that is, keep a proper balance between drill and development?
3. Ability to develop new phases of the work.
  - a. Are lessons well related to previous ones?
  - b. Is material organized?
  - c. Do lessons show the use of material in the solution of present or future problems?
    - (1). In his subject?
    - (2). Outside his subject?
4. Ability to secure class participation in the recitation.
  - a. Do all pupils in the class take part in the discussion?
  - b. Do the pupils question each other and conduct the class independently of his formal direction?
5. Skill in making the assignment.
  - a. Was it an attempt to teach pupils how to study the lesson?
  - b. Was it more than mere formal announcement of the number of pages in the text etc.?
  - c. Is its scope and purpose clearly recognized by pupils?

To what extent has he insight into "how children learn"?

1. Does he keep the discussion within the pupils' comprehension?
2. Does he endeavor to discover pupils' difficulties by keeping records of errors and studying these?
3. Does he adapt discussion to individual differences in pupils?

Summary rating on skill in teaching.

scale the teacher to be rated is compared with the individuals composing the scale and is assigned the numerical rating at the point at which he falls. The greater objectiveness of this method is likely to result in more reliable ratings than can be secured from methods based more decidedly upon general impressions. The use of this scale requires experience with a much larger number of teachers than most principals have had.

Regarding the use of rating scales as an administrative device, it should be clearly understood that the numerous items which go to make up general merit in teaching cannot each have a definite numerical value assigned to it in such a way that the sum of the detailed ratings will form a reliable index of the effectiveness of an individual teacher. It is possible that the total numerical rating of a teacher might be high and yet the absence of some particular quality might make his retention in the school undesirable. The principal must possess a high degree of common sense to make him arrive at a valid judgment as to the fitness of his teachers for retention or promotion. Rating scales are chiefly valuable in calling attention to the defects that must be taken into account in considering the general qualities of merit in teachers which are likely to be overlooked in the general impression method by which teachers are generally judged. A fundamental criticism of the rating schemes now available is that the emphasis is placed almost wholly upon the qualities of *teachers*, whereas the quality of *teaching* is the consideration of vital importance. While there is doubtless a close positive correlation between the qualities of teachers in the respects enumerated in rating scales and the qualities of their teaching, the results secured should be given the most weight in determining the effectiveness of teachers in service. With the rapidly increasing means available for measuring the results of instruction through standardized tests, the rating of teachers' efficiency will be determined

more and more in terms of the objective measurement of the results secured from instruction.

A hopeful beginning in this direction is described by Superintendent Connor of Republic, Michigan. His scale for rating teaching has been formed from the judgments of one hundred and twenty-five persons composed of teachers and graduate students of education. The standards for measuring the results of teaching are classified under the following heads: (1) thinking, (2) emotional reaction, (3) knowledge and skill, (4) morale in dispatch of work, (5) initiative in socially significant situations, (6) ethical self-control in socially significant situations, (7) deportment.

In connection with the definition of each standard a list of concrete acts is given as a basis for determining the accomplishment of the pupil; for example:

#### STANDARD I. THINKING

1. Attains standard score for his grade in
  - a. Stone's Reasoning Tests (Grades 3-8).
  - b. Composition (Grades 4-12).
  - c. Trabue's Language Scale (Grades 2-12).
  - d. Thorndike's Visual Vocabulary Scales (Grades 3-12).
  - e. Thorndike's Scale Alpha 2 for measuring the understanding of sentences (Grades 3-12).
  - f. Starch's Physics Test.
  - g. Henmon's Latin Test.
  - etc.
2. Attains normal school grades in
  - a. School tests on minimum essentials in arithmetic.
  - b. Teacher's or superintendent's tests in other subjects.
  - c. School tests in grammar (Grades 5-8).
3. Expresses himself clearly in his own words.
4. Exhibits ready ability in reproducing in recitations the thinking that has been done before in mastering past work.
5. Interprets intelligently any complex directions for work.
6. Classifies and arranges material well.
7. Defines accurately, though sometimes awkwardly.
8. Locates and defines difficulties in material suitable for his grade.



9. Proposes solutions to problems cautiously and tries them, selecting and rejecting material intelligently.
10. Reaches tentative conclusions and holds them tentatively while searching for more evidence.
11. Verifies conclusions carefully before considering them final.
12. Considers the bearings of conclusions carefully.
13. Accepts the true bearings of conclusions when they are pointed out.
14. Evaluates problems as well as the material used in the solution of problems.
15. Decides correctly when to depend on his own resources and when to seek help.

One who reads this list of concrete achievements may raise the objection that, save for the first two, there are no reliable means for measuring the attainments and progress of pupils in these particulars. This would apply with even greater force to each of the other six groups with the exception of the third — knowledge and skill. Such detailed analysis of the attitudes and habits which are desirable outcomes of school training has value to the extent to which it fixes the attention of teachers upon these attitudes and habits as objectives to be sought and attained. The increasing scope and improved technique of scientific tests for measuring school products afford ground for the expectation that there will be devised reliable means for determining progress in acquiring habits of many sorts as well as information and skill. As regards the use of rating scales, it is certainly important that administrative officers recognize that the results of teaching form the most significant criterion for determining the merit of teachers, and that all available means of measuring objectively the results secured should be employed in deciding the questions of retention, promotion, or discharge.

The various schemes for rating teachers, based on qualities of merit, even though some definite results are secured, are more valuable as devices for supervision and improvement of instruction than for determining questions of promotion.

Such scales as those of Boyce, Elliott, and Rugg may become very effective when used by teachers in rating themselves. An important step in self-improvement is taken when one is led to consider critically the extent to which he exhibits certain traits. The complete analysis of the meritorious qualities of teaching given in these scales leads one to critical self-examination, and the recognition of deficiencies is the first step toward self-improvement. The writer has found it helpful to place copies of these scales in the hands of teachers and to sit down with individual teachers and compare their self-ratings with those which he had made from observations of their work. One is surprised to discover how impersonal and constructive such an interview becomes by reason of the objective basis on which it may proceed. This aspect will be more fully developed later in connection with the supervision and improvement of instruction.

**Summary.** In this chapter we have shown that except in a few states the legal standards for the academic and professional training of high-school teachers are very low. The requirement of the North Central Association of college graduation and fifteen semester hours of professional training is the most important single agency in improving the present situation. Age, tenure, and salary are important factors in relation to effectiveness of teaching. The selection of teachers and principals is unscientific, being based for the most part on inadequate and subjective grounds. There is a growing tendency to use rating scales for judging the merit of teachers, but even these are largely subjective and place too little emphasis upon the results of instruction.

### PROBLEMS AND QUESTIONS

1. Compare the conditions of preparation and tenure of teachers in some other country with those in the United States.
2. What are the probable effects upon our schools of short tenure of position?

3. How do you account for the variation in salaries between different sections?
4. Outline a course of procedure for a principal in whose school five vacancies are to be filled for next year.
5. What professional courses should the principal of a high school of five hundred pupils have taken?
6. In your own case state the one item under each of the following heads which has contributed most to your success as a principal: (1) personal characteristic, (2) previous experience, (3) professional training.
7. Under the same heads state the one item the lack of which has been your greatest handicap.
8. What difficulties should you expect to find in the use of Rugg's scale? of the Connor scale?
9. Which do you think superior for practical purposes? Why?

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## CHAPTER VI

### THE PRINCIPAL AND HIS TEACHING STAFF

Chapter I discussed the wide responsibilities of the principal as head of the modern high school, setting up three general theses: (1) the principal is the responsible leader of the school; (2) the principal is responsible for the direction of all the activities of the school; (3) the principal should delegate to others, so far as feasible, the details of administration and should hold them responsible for the proper performance of the duties assigned. The present chapter will deal with methods of organization of the teaching staff, designed effectively to carry out these theses.

In his relations with his staff the principal should have certain definite principles, not necessarily announced, but controlling all his actions and giving stability to the entire organization. These may be formulated as follows:

**I. The relations of the principal to his staff and of his staff to him should be on a basis of reciprocal coöperation.** There are two radically different types of attitude assumed by principals. One may be called the autocratic type, in which the principal plays the part of an executive officer, issuing orders to be obeyed. From his office go forth frequent mandatory bulletins, and his faculty meetings furnish further opportunity for exercising his directive control. Teachers are summoned before him and rebuked for noncompliance with regulations set up. This method, in the hands of a really strong man, may produce a degree of mechanical efficiency that is superficially admirable. It has the advantages of an autocracy in avoiding loose administration, but it lacks the spirit which makes for initiative and responsibility, qualities essential to group development.

The democratic type of organization proceeds from an essentially different attitude. The principal assumes that all are coworkers seeking the same ends. He realizes that the intimate contact which his teachers have with the detailed work of the school enables them to make valuable contributions in shaping its policies. He encourages initiative and welcomes proposals from every source. Official bulletins are more frequently in the form of committee reports than of executive pronouncements. Faculty meetings are occasions of vital interest. When teachers are given a part in shaping the policies of the school, they willingly assume a share of the responsibility for making these policies effective. This type of principal meets his responsibility for leadership by stimulating his teachers to make each his utmost contribution to furthering the common enterprise.

**II. The principal should promote in every possible way the development of the individual members of his staff.** He should be alert to notice new ideas or devices which teachers are employing and should not fail to commend evidences of originality. He should be accessible and ready to discuss with his teachers any plans looking toward an improvement of their work. In his reading of the educational journals or professional books he should have in mind the interests and needs of the individual members of his staff and should occasionally send a memorandum calling the attention of some teacher or group of teachers to an article or book which he makes available for their reading, at the same time asking for their opinion of the matter discussed. He should give his teachers to understand that he wishes them to outgrow their present positions, and that if he cannot promote them to higher positions in his school he will seek to secure for them better positions elsewhere. The principal who looks upon the improvement of his teachers with a fear that he may lose them lacks a quality essential to the development of the fullest spirit of coöperation in his staff. There is a certain



school with patronage locally limited but with a reputation extending over the entire country. This reputation is not due to any exceptional quality of its work, but to the fact that a large number of eminent teachers in larger and more important institutions have come from its faculty. The man who has been at the head of this school for many years might be called a good judge of men; he is that, but he is much more, he is a good developer of men. His contribution to society is probably less in the training which successive classes of students have received in his school than in the discovery and development of the abilities of his teaching staff and in promoting their progress to wider fields of service.

**III. The principal should give credit to his teachers for results accomplished.** This is another way of saying that the principal should not himself claim credit for the worthy achievements of his teachers. It often happens that in articles published in educational journals and in papers read before professional groups the principal describes experiments or practices of members of his staff, which he has not originated and with which he has had little to do, as if they were his own. In a large sense the principal is the spokesman for his school, and he is often called upon to perform this function where one of his teachers would not be asked to do so, but even then he can find opportunity to give generous recognition of the contributions made by members of his staff. And this is usually sufficient reward. In some cases the principal had better meet his responsibility by encouraging the teacher himself to write the article or prepare the paper. A more common form of publicity is in the local press, and here the principal has many chances to secure recognition of good service by his teachers. The principal who is obviously seeking publicity for the sake of his own promotion is not likely to have the confidence of his faculty, which is necessary if he is to secure their full coöperation.

Sometimes a principal has a most unfortunate quality which causes him to be jealous of the attainments of individual teachers. I have known a principal, of unusual strength in some respects, who was temperamentally unable to conceal his jealousy whenever a teacher acquired any considerable popularity with the pupils of the school. Evidences of popularity were to be discouraged by any teacher who desired to live comfortably in his school. It goes without saying that recognition of genuine worth, either by the general public or by the school community, should be welcomed and encouraged by the principal in the case of any of his teachers. He should go farther than this and, by personal note or word of mouth, should himself commend any striking achievements of his teachers.

**IV. The principal should give his full support and backing to his teachers in the performance of duties for which he has made them responsible.** The delegation of duties to other members of his staff does not relieve the principal of responsibility for their acts as his agents. He should hold them strictly accountable to him, but he must not forget that the ultimate responsibility is his own. The weak or vacillating principal who in an emergency undertakes to evade an issue by laying the blame upon a subordinate deserves the reputation which he will acquire in his school and the community. Only if the support of the "office" can be counted upon will teachers act courageously and give their own loyal support to their chief. It is true that they cannot always be relied upon to act wisely and dispassionately, but only rarely should a principal fail to uphold any position taken by one of his teachers. In matters of minor importance in which an appeal is made from a teacher's decision, the principal should support the teacher, though at the same time he may tell her that she was wrong and advise her against a recurrence of a similar situation. In extreme cases in which the principal feels that a decision should be reversed, he should

undertake to convince the teacher and allow her to adjust the situation instead of arbitrarily asserting his authority in the case. When his teachers have come, through experience, to rely upon the principal's sincerity and strong support, they will yield to his judgment in an emergency even at the cost of their own discomfort.

**Organization of the faculty.** The form of faculty organization best adapted to a given school depends upon its size. A school of five teachers obviously presents a very different problem of organization from that of a school employing a staff of twenty or more members. The duties of administration in a small school are less exacting than in a large school and are usually performed in great measure by the principal. He also finds it necessary to carry a teaching-schedule often only a little lighter than that of the other members of his staff. He finds it difficult to meet adequately the requirements for leadership which are demanded of him. It is no less essential that such a principal should develop a professional spirit in his faculty through group discussions and projects and should improve individual instruction through supervision. Although the organization will be on a more personal and less formal basis, he should find time for performing his duties as a leader by delegating tasks to others. The principal must always realize that it is his duty to get the things done that need to be done, and that in the long run the total accomplishment will be greater and more satisfactory if he does not try to do everything himself. The fact that in the small school the teachers and even the principal himself are not likely to have had much professional training or long experience makes individual and group improvement all the more important. However much the young principal may feel his own inadequacy, for the sake of his own development and to secure the best results from his staff he should recognize his responsibility for professional leadership and should arrange a schedule for himself which will make it

possible for him to meet the obligations which his position imposes upon him.

The larger high school, with its broader curricula and more diversified social life, requires a more elaborate form of organization. With a comprehensive view of the objectives to be attained and with consideration of the relative importance of each, the principal must organize his staff in such a way as to secure from each individual and from the whole group the largest possible returns. Aside from a meager supply of clerical assistance there is ordinarily little if any provision made in the personnel for administration in addition to the principal. In the high schools of one of our largest cities the quota of teachers is based on a full teaching assignment to the entire staff with the exception of the principal. Whatever relief is secured for those who assist in the performance of administrative tasks is found only by increasing the teaching-load of other members of the faculty. Boards of education have not generally reached an adequate conception of what is necessary for the proper administration of the high school. One of the important duties of the principal is to lead those who officially represent the community in the control of the schools to understand his broader aims and to provide the means necessary for their attainment. In the meantime his obvious duty is to make his present organization as effective as possible.

**Assistant principal.** In many schools provision is made for the office of assistant principal. Schools of five hundred or more pupils should have such an officer, to whom the principal may assign a large part of the routine administrative tasks. This officer is also found in a few smaller schools. In some cases he may assist in the supervision and improvement of instruction. The division of work between the principal and his assistant should depend upon their personal adaptability to the various tasks to be performed. It is probably advisable and often necessary for the assistant principal

to do some teaching, the amount usually varying with the size of the school, but he should be selected for his fitness for administration and should be regarded primarily as an administrative officer. His experience should prepare him for promotion to the principalship whenever a vacancy occurs. This method of securing principals is in sharp contrast with the practice employed in some large cities of promoting heads of departments to the principalship. It is seldom that a man who has had a long term of service as a department head has acquired sufficient breadth of view and the administrative skill required of a successful principal.

In the Roosevelt High School, Alton, Illinois, the duties of the assistant principal are described as follows:

1. General supervision of office.
2. General supervision of attendance.
3. Supervision of scholarship records.
4. Supervision of faculty advisers and teachers' reports.
5. Any matters that need attention in a general way.
6. The assistant principal will act as secretary.

In addition to this officer four other members of the staff of this school are designated as head assistants, each being relieved of one or two periods of teaching daily and receiving a small increase in salary above that paid to regular teachers. These assistants are given specific duties under the following heads: (1) curricula, (2) conduct, (3) library and public speaking, (4) school activities. The nature of their specific duties may be seen from the following statement of the duties of the head assistant in charge of curricula:

1. Careful examination of new professional books available on all high-school subjects.
2. Collecting information from bulletins and school papers regarding changes and additions in curricula and making reports on these.
3. Supervision through advisers of all pupils above the first year to see that they are following curricula chosen and taking the proper amount of work and the right studies. Have advisers report, and then check their reports.



4. Conferences with heads of departments regarding the organization of the departments to increase effectiveness and how to prevent as large a percentage of failures as possible.

5. Suggestion of problems and projects to be tried out, supervision of tests (both accomplishment and intelligence tests), and tabulation of results.

**Dean of girls.** A new type of assistant principal, usually called the dean of girls, is coming to be recognized as important in the larger schools. Courses are now offered in professional schools for training women expressly for this position. Various matters pertaining to the peculiar needs of girls require the services of a woman of broad sympathy and administrative skill. In addition to the duties which have to do exclusively with the girls, such a woman may be given large responsibilities in connection with the general social life of the school, the direction of which is rightly assuming a greatly increased importance. If no provision is made for such an officer, the principal should select the woman of his staff who is best qualified for the work and assign to her specific duties in this field.

**Organization of departments.** In schools employing two or more teachers in the same general subject there should be some form of departmental organization. The most desirable method is the appointment of a permanent head. In some schools the plan of having chairmen elected each year by the members of the departments is preferred. It is urged that this more democratic method secures better coöperation within the department and offers a better opportunity for the development of the individual teachers. It is probable that the financial saving in the additional salary usually paid to department heads is an element in the selection or retention of this policy. This form of organization is found in some of our largest cities; for example, Chicago and St. Paul. The greater continuity in departmental administration secured through the appointment of a permanent head would seem to be sufficient justification for the slight increase in expense.

This is, of course, true only if heads are carefully selected and are assigned definite responsibilities. Among the duties which properly fall to department heads may be enumerated the following:

1. Responsibility for such matters of departmental routine as inventories of equipment and requisitions for new material, the distribution of, and accounting for, free textbooks, the preparation of lists of books and other material needed in the library for use in connection with the work of the department.
2. Preparation of courses of study.
3. The examination and recommendation of textbooks.
4. The assignment of teachers to classes on the basis of their special fitness.
5. A study of the relative effectiveness of individual teachers and of the whole department.
6. The conduct of department meetings for the purpose of improving individual and group efficiency.
7. Constructive supervision of teaching in the department.

The satisfactory performance of these duties requires a high degree of professional interest and administrative skill. As in the case of the principal, the best results will be secured through the delegation of some of these tasks to other members of the department. The head should be given relief from teaching sufficient to provide the time necessary for the proper performance of his special duties. There is an unfortunate tendency, inevitable in view of the usual lack of adequate administrative personnel, for principals to employ on matters relating to the general management of the school much of the energy and time which department heads might find available for these duties.

A cabinet composed of the heads of all departments may render invaluable service in the administration of the school. The meetings of this cabinet should be held at regular and frequent intervals. At these meetings the principal may bring up for preliminary discussion before they are taken up by the entire faculty, a great variety of matters affecting the general policy of the school. There are many occasions on

which the principal will wish the advice or support of his cabinet in regard to matters which should not be brought to the attention of the entire staff at all. In many schools in which the general faculty meetings have never served a very useful purpose, the meetings of the principal's cabinet have proved indispensably serviceable.

**Group advisers.** Some plan of group advisers is employed in most schools. The size of the group and the functions of the adviser vary widely in different schools. In some cases the unit is the class; in others it is the section-room group. In Grand Rapids an advisory group consists of two hundred pupils, in charge of a teacher whose entire time is devoted to advisory duties and who gives no classroom instruction. In addition to these more formal groups, advisers must be assigned to the various clubs and other forms of extra-classroom activities. Generally these advisory duties are in addition to the regular teaching assignments of the teachers, and their scope and the effectiveness of their performance are restricted by this fact. Among the duties assigned to advisers are the following:

1. Recording attendance and excusing absences and tardiness.
2. Advising with regard to choice of studies and to the making of pupils' schedules.
3. Transcribing pupils' records.
4. Distributing and taking care of reports to parents.
5. Giving vocational advice.
6. Investigating and removing causes of failure.
7. Interviewing parents and becoming acquainted with social conditions of pupils outside the schools.
8. Chaperoning parties.
9. Attending meetings of clubs.
10. Supervision of intergroup contests.
11. Supervising class and school elections.

Here is a wide range of possible duties, all of which will be recognized as important, and which will severely tax the organizing ability of the principal to get done with the staff under his leadership.

**Committees.** The principal who organizes his faculty on a democratic basis will find use for many committees. Some of these will be standing committees, acting throughout an entire year; others will be appointed to meet some temporary need. It is an important principle to keep in mind that no committee should be formed unless there is a definite and useful service to be performed. The writer once had occasion to interview a principal who had thirty-one standing committees of his faculty. It is quite impossible to conceive any useful purpose to be served by such an imposing array, and it is reasonable to assume that committee assignments in that school are not taken as involving serious responsibility. A second principle of equal importance is that a committee, once appointed, should perform its work. Reports should usually be made in writing and be preserved as permanent records. If reports are made to the faculty they should form a part of the secretary's record; if they are made directly to the principal they should be preserved in the office files. The number of standing committees that can be made permanently valuable differs with the size of the school and with the form of faculty organization employed. The following are mentioned as typical:

1. Committee on curricula. This may very well be the cabinet of department heads.
2. Committee on faculty meetings.
3. Committee on assembly programs. This should include representative pupils as well as teachers.
4. Committee on athletic games.
5. Committee on school publications.
6. Committee on social activities. The chairman should be the dean of girls.
7. Library committee. The librarian should be chairman.

The range of the possible useful activities of special committees is without limit. Some of these grow out of such annual events as the school commencement, in preparation for which one or more committees will be necessary. Special

events, such as a festival or a school excursion, furnish the occasion for other committees. The principal should secure the appointment of committees to investigate and report on subjects of fundamental importance in the improvement of the school; for example, testing the efficiency of instruction, the marking system, supervised study, the extent and causes of elimination, the principles and methods of discipline. Such committee reports, if carefully prepared, thoroughly discussed, and made effective in later practice, have permanent value in the improvement of the school's work. The writer recalls that in a school of which he was principal the work of two such committees produced important and lasting results; one of the reports was on teaching pupils how to study, the other (which followed a careful survey of existing conditions), on training in habits of honesty.

The diagram on page 98 represents graphically the type of organization discussed in this chapter. It will not be difficult by addition or subtraction to make this diagram applicable to the more complex or more simple forms of organization suited to schools of different sizes.

**Faculty meetings.** The faculty meeting is the principal's great opportunity for constructive leadership. Through it he should seek to secure the unification of the spirit and aims of his entire staff and the progressive improvement of the work of his school. In actual fact, however, in schools both large and small the opportunity is seldom fully realized. Held at infrequent or irregular intervals, its programs poorly planned, the faculty meeting is looked forward to with indifference or dread by teachers and principals alike. As an occasion for the principal to make routine announcements or to lecture his staff on their failures to comply with regulations, for teachers to relieve their irritations by the gossiping recital of the shortcomings of individual pupils, for the loquacious teacher to talk at will, or for the malcontent to air his grievances against the principal or his fellow teachers, the faculty



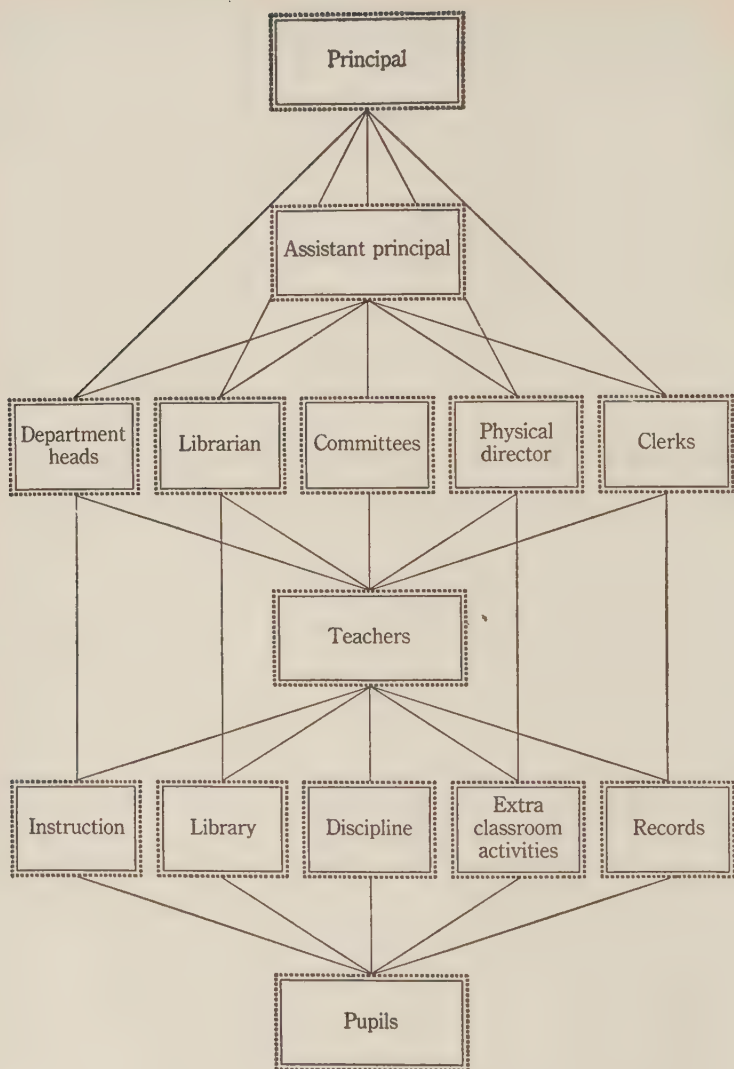
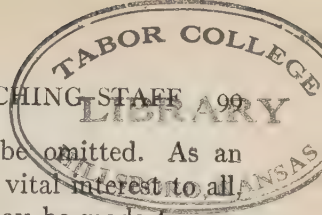


FIG. 1. Organization of the Faculty



meeting has no place and had better be omitted. As an occasion for the discussion of matters of vital interest to all conducted in a democratic manner, it may be made to contribute greatly to the good will and enthusiasm of the faculty as a whole and to the professional improvement of individual teachers and of the entire group.

At this point it is worth while to take up briefly in the form of positive or negative statements a number of things to be desired or avoided in the conduct of the faculty meeting. Although some of these are so obvious as to seem not to deserve mention, one who is familiar with current practices will recognize their importance.

1. Meetings should be held regularly at stated intervals. The most successful plan is to have meetings of the entire faculty every two weeks, with departmental meetings on the intervening weeks. The day should be decided by faculty vote.

2. Meetings should begin promptly at the time set and close at the end of one hour.

3. The prompt attendance of all should be expected. It is well for the secretary to keep a record of those present, although this should not be read as a part of his report.

4. The secretary's records should be carefully kept. It is a good plan to have these typewritten in a loose-leaf book which can later be bound and permanently preserved.

5. There should be a definite plan for each meeting, and this plan should be followed.

6. No time should be given to routine announcements. These should be distributed in duplicate form from the office. It is well to have for this purpose a faculty exchange with individual boxes for all. Teachers can be held as strictly responsible for compliance in this manner as when announcements are made by the spoken word.

7. The principal should not make the faculty meeting an occasion for scolding. If it seems to him necessary to find fault with individuals or with his entire staff, he should seek some other occasion for expression. Scolding at faculty meetings is an easy habit to acquire, and its results are deadly.

8. No time should be taken for the discussion of cases of individual pupils. Such information as is necessary can better be secured through written reports or in smaller groups of teachers.

With these important details in mind the principal should set up a constructive plan for the meetings of his faculty. This objective should be clearly held in view: the unification of his staff and the progressive improvement of the work of the school. Although he may have in mind exactly the program which he wishes carried out, it is better that he should not impose his plan without consultation. As the end sought is improvement of the group, he will adopt the method of procedure most likely to secure the active participation of all. A committee, either appointed or elected, should be given charge of the program for a year. This committee might be the cabinet of department heads, but a smaller one is probably better for this purpose. The principal may very properly act as a member, *ex officio*, and may exert a dominant influence in shaping the program.

There are two general types of programs suitable for faculty meetings. The first consists of a series of topics arranged in orderly sequence, providing a rapid survey of methods of instruction and general school management. Such a program could well follow the outline of some good book on general methods such as Parker's "Methods of Teaching in High Schools" or Colvin's "Introduction to High-School Teaching." This plan has the advantage of a good organization already at hand with material easily available in a textbook, with its references to other books and journals to supplement the material of the texts. Such a general survey has much to recommend it, as there are likely to be many matters in regard to which it is important that teachers should be acquainted with the best current practices. This is certainly a good plan with which to begin in a school in which faculty meetings have not been conducted on a professional basis. There is, however, danger that so little time will be given to each topic that the meetings will be little more than academic discussions and will result in little tangible improvement in the actual practices of the classroom.

A second type of program, which over a series of years would be likely to prove a great deal more fruitful of results, would provide a much smaller number of topics, carefully selected as most important, and would devote several meetings to a more thorough discussion of each. In the development of such a topic there might be involved an investigation and report by a special committee of present practices in the school and specific recommendations for improvement, followed by the formal adoption of methods of procedure for the future guidance of the faculty. These larger topics may frequently extend to the departmental meetings, where the applications to the work of a special field may be profitably taken up in detail. This method is more likely to result in permanent improvement in school procedure, which is one of the important aims set up for the faculty meeting.

The following is an outline of a report presented to the faculty of the Horace Mann High School for Girls on desirable school habits.

#### I. The Immediate Objectives.

##### 1. The suppression of all unnecessary interruptions.

*a.* Do not interrupt a speaker.

*b.* Do not "help" a pupil while he is reciting.

It is the will governed by itself that we seek. In this alone can be found true liberty.—PRESIDENT BUTLER

##### 2. The immediate response to an authoritative signal.

Obedience to law devised by reason is a training in reasonableness, not slavery.—PROFESSOR THORNDIKE

##### 3. The checking of needless discussion.

Develop a spirit that shall put the public good ahead of personal gain.—DEAN RUSSELL

##### 4. The insistence on doing the thing agreed upon by the group.

One former is worth a thousand reformers.—HORACE MANN

##### 5. The encouraging of voluntary leadership and followship (the kind that will meet usual and unusual situations adequately).

Our needed characteristic trait is responsibility, a greater recognition of responsibility to the common weal.—JOHN DEWEY

##### 6. The checking of unnecessary confusion in the corridors.

## II. Ways and Means.

1. A recognition of the worth-whileness of these objectives on the part of both teachers and students in all grades.
2. The establishing of an ideal in respect to each particular objective.
3. The steady daily insistence on right conduct in line with these objectives.
4. A day set aside for the opening of this drive on "Desirable School Habits," featuring:
  - a. Chapel talk by the principal.
  - b. Class discussions immediately following.
  - c. Continuation of same by subject teachers.
  - d. School slogans, mottoes, etc.
5. A follow-up committee whose function would be to suggest helpful ways and means.

The following list contains a number of topics suitable for such extended treatment, to which many others of equal importance could be added:

1. The general aims of secondary education with more specific departmental aims.
2. Aims and methods of school discipline.
3. Questioning in classroom method.
4. Aims and controls of extra-classroom activities.
5. Individual differences.
6. Supervised study.
7. Tests of intelligence as affecting school procedure.
8. The marking system.
9. The school library.

The value of the faculty meeting will depend largely upon the care with which each meeting is planned in advance. Not only should the topics be carefully selected, but assignments should be made for each meeting to one or more teachers for careful preparation and presentation of definite material relating to the topic. There should be opportunity for general discussion, but extemporaneous or hurriedly prepared remarks alone cannot be relied upon to lead to results of permanent value. Mimeographed outlines of the material to be presented may well be sent out a day or two in advance or



placed in the hands of the teachers at the time of the meeting. Committee reports should be similarly distributed, if possible, before the meeting at which they are to be discussed. It is often advisable to have the discussions of a meeting summed up later in the form of a résumé for distribution in mimeographed form to the members of the faculty.

The principal should make a large contribution in the preparation for these meetings through personal conferences with the committee in charge of the meetings and with the individual teachers who are assigned places on the programs. By reason of his responsibility for leadership and the broader reading and experience which he is presumed to have, he should be ready to suggest sources of material and to give assistance to his teachers in the preparation of their parts. He should also encourage and assist investigations and experiments related to the topics under discussion. In no other way can he contribute more to the improvement of the members of his staff. The principal should also see that there is available for his faculty a good supply of professional literature in the form of both books and educational journals. This important matter is taken up more fully in a later chapter on the school library.

The part which the principal should play in the faculty meeting itself is an important but not often a conspicuous one. As presiding officer he should direct the progress of the meeting in an effective yet democratic manner. He may take part in the general discussions but should be careful not to take too much time. He should not be overconcerned if members take positions with which he is not in agreement. He knows, and his faculty knows, that he has the right to make arbitrary decisions in matters affecting the methods and procedure of the school; but in the discussion of professional topics, suitable for faculty meetings, there should be no occasion for the principal to assume an arbitrary position. He will best secure the legitimate aims of the school

by allowing free discussion, assuming that the members of his staff desire, as sincerely as he does, to secure the best possible results. Honest and vigorous disagreement is often a healthy sign. If it is desirable that all should agree with the principal, he can afford to wait. It is not impossible that he himself may be wrong.

The preceding discussion of the organization of the teaching staff suggests the danger of diminishing the effectiveness of teachers by placing upon them too heavy a burden of duties not directly related to the work of instruction. This danger has been discussed, from the point of view of the teacher in a particular school, by Greenan in the article referred to at the end of the chapter. The principal needs constantly to keep in mind that instruction is the most important activity of the school, and that while the classroom is not the only place where instruction is going on, no work should be required of teachers which does not contribute in some way to the attainment of the aims of his school. He must have a broader conception of the work of the school as a whole than he can expect any teacher to have, and he must see to it that the total effort expended secures a maximum of desirable results. His ideal should be to have each teacher working with a maximum of efficiency and a minimum of friction, with good will based upon a belief in the sincerity of his principal and of his colleagues, toward ends set up and accepted by the entire staff. The measurable results secured under these conditions furnish an effective basis for an appeal to the superintendent or school board for needed relief.

**Summary.** The principal's leadership is proved by his ability to secure the coöperation of his staff. The highest success of the school can result only from good teamwork. The principal must himself be a good teamworker. He must sincerely desire the development of each member of his staff, he must give credit for their accomplishments, and he must give them the fullest support at all times. His staff should be

organized as simply as possible, yet so that every necessary detail of responsibility shall be fixed and effectively met. In the complicated activities of the school there is required of the principal a broad conception of the relations of all the parts to the whole in order that steady and consistent progress may be made toward the aims set up for the school.

### PROBLEMS AND QUESTIONS

1. Give an incident from your experience or observation illustrating a desirable relationship between a principal and his staff; another illustrating an undesirable relationship.

2. As principal of a high school employing twenty teachers, would you prefer to have no change of teachers for ten years or to have ten go to better-salaried positions in other schools? Support your answer.

3. The remark, "It is no use to send a pupil to the office; nothing ever happens," is sometimes heard among teachers. What is the trouble in the situation and what is the remedy?

4. List the duties that may be assigned to an office clerk.

5. What duties would you assign to the committee on athletic games?

6. Should a case involving serious discipline (for example, expulsion) be brought before the faculty for discussion and decision? Support your answer.

7. Describe the best faculty meeting you ever attended; the worst.

8. How much time each week ought a teacher to be asked to give to duties not pertaining to classroom teaching?

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## CHAPTER VII

### THE HIGH-SCHOOL PUPIL

The most obvious fact in the development of secondary education within the last quarter of a century is the increase in the number of pupils and teachers in the secondary schools. In the year 1915-1916 the number of pupils in these schools was more than five times that of the year 1890-1891, and the number of teachers employed was almost six times as great. The number of pupils in secondary schools in this period had increased 420 per cent, the number of teachers 467 per cent, while the entire population of the United States had increased only 57 per cent. The figures given in Table II, compiled from the reports of the Commissioner of Education, show the facts at two intervals of ten years and one of five years during the twenty-five years from 1890-1891 to 1915-1916.<sup>1</sup>

An examination of these figures reveals other striking facts. The increase in attendance of all secondary schools during the five years from 1910-1911 to 1915-1916 exceeded the total attendance in 1890-1891 by almost 200,000. That this acceleration of increase has continued during the later years of the decade from 1910 to 1920 is indicated by the statistics for the year 1917-1918, which show the enrollment of public high schools to be 1,933,821, an increase of 816 per cent in twenty years. The rate of increase for the two years 1915-1916 to 1917-1918 is two and one-half times greater than that for the first half of the decade. The enrollment in public high schools for 1917-1918 was 18.4 per 1000 of the

<sup>1</sup> The first three columns are taken from Inglis's "Principles of Secondary Education," p. 119; the fourth column is compiled from "Report of United States Commissioner of Education," 1917.

TABLE II. STATISTICS OF PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECONDARY SCHOOLS FROM 1890 TO 1916

	1890-1891	1900-1901	1910-1911	1915-1916
Public secondary schools:				
Number of schools . . .	2,771	6,318	10,234	12,003
Number of pupils . . .	211,596	541,730	984,677	1,456,061
Number of teachers . . .	8,270	21,778	45,167	68,277
Pupils per 1000 population	3.4	7.1	10.9	14.7
Private secondary schools:				
Number of schools . . .	1,714	1,892	1,979	2,203
Number of pupils . . .	98,400	108,221	130,649	155,135
Number of teachers . . .	6,231	9,775	12,073	13,958
Pupils per 1000 population	1.6	1.4	1.4	1.6
All secondary schools:				
Number of schools . . .	4,485	8,210	12,213	14,206
Number of pupils . . .	309,996	649,953	1,115,326	1,611,196
Number of teachers . . .	14,501	31,553	57,240	82,235
Pupils per 1000 population	5.0	8.5	12.3	16.3

population. The secondary-school enrollment for 1920-1921 was 2,199,389, or more than double that of 1910-1911. It should be observed that these statistics do not include the registration of the seventh and eighth grades of the junior high school. The inclusion of these years in an enumeration of the secondary-school population would, of course, introduce a misleading factor in the comparison of enrollment by years. Another element now operating to accelerate the increase in secondary-school enrollment is found in the legal enactments, recently adopted in several states, advancing the years of required attendance, and providing for continuation or part-time classes. The effect of this requirement is not yet fully shown in published statistics.

It is further to be noted that the number of private secondary schools and their enrollment has shown but slight increase as compared with the public high schools. The percentage of secondary-school pupils enrolled in the public



high school has shown a continuous increase from 1889-1890, when it was 68.13, to 1915-1916, when it became 90.37. The public high school has become the dominant type of secondary school.

In connection with the increase of secondary-school enrollment it should be observed that much diversity exists in respect to the percentage of enrollment in the different states. The per cent of the school population enrolled in public high schools in 1917-1918 varied from 19 in California to 2.2 in South Carolina. New Hampshire ranked second with a percentage of 18.1, and Massachusetts third with a percentage of 17.2. Texas, with 9.6 per cent, was the only Southern state ranking above the median.

This unprecedented increase in attendance has been due to several causes, among which the following are important: (1) the increase in material prosperity of the great masses of our population; (2) a growing popular recognition of the value of education beyond that furnished by the elementary school; (3) the extension of the curriculum to offer a wider variety of subjects, particularly the vocational subjects, to meet the interests and capacities of many pupils who previously would not have entered the high school or who would have dropped out because of lack of interest in the work offered.

This immensely increased enrollment has severely taxed the ability of communities, particularly the larger cities, to provide the necessary housing accommodations and a sufficient number of suitably trained teachers. In many cities it is found necessary to conduct high schools with two shifts, half the pupils attending in the morning and half in the afternoon. In New York City in 1921 there were twenty-two high schools organized in this manner, with an aggregate attendance of 35,408. In spite of the unusual difficulties which the erection of new buildings presents at this time, there is a considerable amount of construction going forward. This, however, falls far short of what is necessary to keep up with

the demand for increased facilities. There is a corresponding demand for a larger teaching staff, which is also proving difficult to meet, both because of the lack of those suitably trained for the work and because of the added cost due to a higher general scale of salaries for an ever-increasing number of teachers. What is involved in adequate provision for secondary education under present conditions is not understood by the general public; it is doubtful whether those who are expert in school finance see clearly the magnitude of the problem. Dr. Judd raises the doubt as to whether the public will be able or willing to meet the demands for free secondary education at the level of expense which the situation requires.

**Distribution of pupils by sex.** The relative proportion of boys to girls in Grades 1 to 12 for nine states in the year 1917-1918 is shown in Table III.

TABLE III <sup>1</sup>

GRADE	Boys	Girls
	<i>Per cent</i>	<i>Per cent</i>
1	53	47
2	52	48
3	51	49
4	50	50
5	50	50
6	49	51
7	48	52
8	46	54
9	44	56
10	43	57
11	42	58
12	40	60

In Grades 1-3 there is shown a larger percentage of boys than girls, whereas in Grades 6-12 the percentage of girls exceeds that of boys. It is probable that this is due to a greater

<sup>1</sup> Compiled from data given in "Statistics of State School Systems," Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1920, No. 11, p. 24.

percentage of retardation among boys in the lower grades and, in the upper grades, to a greater tendency for boys to drop out of school. The variation in these percentages from year to year is nearly uniform except at the fourth and fifth years, where the fluctuation is temporarily arrested. The enrollment of individual schools shows a marked increase in the percentage of boys at the present time. Some schools have even a larger number of boys than girls. The enrollment of the high schools of New York City on October 31, 1921, was 41,390 boys and 40,335 girls. There are no reliable data to show that this marks a general tendency, though it is highly probable that changes in the organization and curricula of our high schools are bringing about this desirable result.

**Distribution of pupils by grades.** The percentage of pupils in each year of the four-year high school is shown in Table IV for the years 1910-1911 to 1917-1918.

TABLE IV. DISTRIBUTION OF PUPILS BY YEARS<sup>1</sup>

	1910- 1911	1911- 1912	1912- 1913	1913- 1914	1914- 1915	1915- 1916	1916- 1917	1917- 1918
	<i>Per cent</i>	<i>Per cent</i>	<i>Per cent</i>	<i>Per cent</i>	<i>Per cent</i>	<i>Per cent</i>	<i>Per cent</i>	<i>Per cent</i>
In first year . .	42.8	41.7	41.0	40.8	40.9	40.5	40.2	39.8
In second year . .	26.7	27.1	26.9	26.8	26.7	26.9	26.9	26.9
In third year . .	18.0	18.2	18.6	18.6	18.4	18.5	18.6	18.8
In fourth year . .	12.5	13.0	13.5	13.8	14.0	14.1	14.3	14.5

The tendency shown for the percentage of pupils in the first year to diminish and in the fourth year to increase indicates a steady growth in recent years in the ability of the high schools to hold the pupils throughout the entire period of four years. The actual facts are probably more favorable than are shown in the table, because the rapid increase in

<sup>1</sup> "Statistics of State School Systems, 1917-1918," Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1920, No. 11.

attendance has had its most marked effect upon the first year and swells the relative percentage of attendance at this point.

**Distribution by ages.** A study by Dynes of the ages at which pupils enter high school and the numbers graduating at each age during a period of eleven years, 1897-1908, in the Iowa City High School shows the relation between age and probable success in high school. Table V shows the distribution by ages of 1033 pupils based on the age of entering high school.

TABLE V. AGES OF 1033 PUPILS AT THE TIME OF ENTERING HIGH SCHOOL<sup>1</sup>

AGE AT ENTERING	GRADUATES			NONGRADUATES			COMBINED			PER CENT GRADUATING
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	
11	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	0
12	10	9	19	5	2	7	15	11	26	73
13	49	62	111	25	28	53	74	90	164	68
14	89	120	209	71	86	157	160	206	366	57
15	42	65	107	65	85	150	107	150	257	42
16	15	17	32	64	57	121	79	74	153	21
17	12	1	13	26	16	42	38	17	55	24
18	0	0	0	2	5	7	2	5	7	0
19	0	0	0	1	1	2	1	1	2	0
20	0	0	0	2	0	2	2	0	2	0
	217	274	491	261	281	542	478	555	1033	

Assuming fourteen years as the normal age for entering high school from an eight-year elementary school, this table shows that 19 per cent of the boys and 18 per cent of the girls were below normal age at the time of entrance, 33 per cent of the boys and 37 per cent of the girls were of normal age, and 48 per cent of the boys and 45 per cent of the girls were above normal age.

Disregarding the single exception of the pupil who entered at eleven, it will be seen that those who entered high school

<sup>1</sup> Compiled from "The Relation of Retardation to Elimination of Students from the High School," by J. J. Dynes, in *School Review*, Vol. XXII, pp. 396-406.

before the normal age had a greater expectancy of completing the course than those who were above the normal age; in fact, this expectancy diminished regularly by very appreciable amounts from twelve years of age, with the exception of the age of seventeen, where there was an increase in the per cent of graduates. Further analysis at this point shows that 32 per cent of the boys and only 6 per cent of the girls entering at seventeen years were graduated. Similar studies of schools in other cities give varying percentages of retention, but all show that the expectancy of completing the high-school course diminishes as the age of the pupil at the time of entrance increases.

**Elimination.** Extensive studies of elimination have been made by Thorndike, Ayres, and Strayer. While these show rather wide variations in the amounts of elimination for the high-school years, they agree in placing the largest percentage of elimination during or at the close of the first year. From these studies it appears that from one third to one half the pupils who enter the high school are eliminated before the second year, from one half to two thirds before the third year, and from two thirds to three fourths before the fourth year. There are indications that the percentage of elimination at the present time is considerably reduced from that shown in these studies, but we have no reliable statistics to show the extent of the change.

Among the causes of elimination the following probably have greatest weight:

1. *Retardation.* It has been shown above that pupils above the normal age are less likely to continue in school.

2. *Home conditions.* Van Denberg, Holley, and Counts have made investigations showing that low economic ability causes elimination, that pupils whose fathers are engaged in professional or commercial occupations are more likely to continue in school than the children of parents engaged in trades or unskilled occupations, and that there is a close correlation between the amount of education received by parents and the persistence of pupils in school.



3. *Lack of interest in school work.* This is due to the poor quality of instruction or to the formal material of the curriculum.

4. *Attractiveness of life outside the school.* This is closely related to the causes previously given. Pressure of the home to add to its income causes many pupils to leave school. Lack of success in school work and the feeling that school tasks have little relation to the real affairs of life lead to dissatisfaction and withdrawal in many cases.

The large number of pupils who leave before the completion of the course places upon the high school the necessity of increased effort to meet the needs of this group. This involves such administrative adjustments and such reorganization of instructional material as will tend (1) to retain pupils in school for a longer period and (2) to make the work of the school more valuable, so long as they remain in school, for those pupils who will not complete the course. In both these directions school authorities are working, and indications of success are already apparent. The junior-high-school promotion on the basis of age rather than of actual school achievement, part-time classes, the segregation of pupils according to ability, special classes for retarded pupils, more careful guidance of individual pupils, sometimes based on diagnostic tests, represent forms of administrative adjustment designed to secure these ends. The addition of new material to the curriculum and the extensive changes in subject matter and emphasis in the older fields are sure to increase the holding power of the high school and to give larger and more serviceable returns to those who will still leave school before completing the entire course. Notable illustrations of changes in curriculum working toward this end are found in the organization of the social studies to cover in a broader and more vital way the field more formally treated in history, civics, and economics; the substitution of sequences in science (beginning with general science) for the special sciences usually taken up quite independently without requirement of sequence; the changes in mathematics for some time under way, which are receiving powerful reënforcement through

the activities and reports of the American Mathematical Association. The investigation of the teaching of Latin in the secondary schools recently carried out on broad scientific lines by the American Classical League, supported by a liberal subsidy from the General Education Board, is full of promise of change in this field hallowed by antiquity. Similar investigations of other subjects are already under way.

**Pupils completing the secondary-school course.** As we have seen, the secondary school was in its origin designed only to give preparation for higher institutions, and until recently this aim has dominated the curriculum. In spite of the rapid increase in the number of pupils going on to college the relative proportion of pupils preparing for college has decreased. Inglis calls attention to the fact that this has led to an underestimate of the proportion of pupils going to college and other higher institutions from the public secondary schools. He says:

Thus in 1893 the Committee of Ten stated that "only an insignificant percentage of the graduates of these (high) schools go to colleges or scientific schools" and that statement has been accepted generally since that time. It is, however, quite false. In 1915, of the graduates of the public high schools of the country, 35.85 per cent were prepared for college and 16.27 per cent were prepared for other higher institutions, making a total of approximately one half of the graduates of our public high schools prepared for higher education in that year.

Table VI gives the distribution of 20,389 graduates from 596 high schools from fourteen states included in the territory of the North Central Association for the year 1913.

It will be seen from this table that 26.9 per cent entered college, 7.3 per cent entered normal schools, 3.7 per cent entered commercial schools, and an additional 3.3 per cent went directly into professional schools — a total of 41.2 per cent who continued their education in some other form of institution. Counts, in his study, found "that of the 333 schools reporting, 241, or slightly over 72 per cent, report

that 50 per cent or more of their students who went to college were in the highest third of the class." It appears that the pupils who go to college include a relatively large proportion of those whose school records are high.

TABLE VI. DISTRIBUTION OF GRADUATES OF 596 HIGH SCHOOLS OF THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION <sup>1</sup>

OCCUPATIONS	IN CITIES OF LESS THAN 7500 POPULATION		IN CITIES OF MORE THAN 7500 POPULATION		IN ALL CITIES CONSIDERED	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
College . . . . .	2,636	23.75	2,854	30.72	5,490	26.9
Commercial school	437	3.94	325	3.49	762	3.7
Trades . . . . .	310	2.79	381	4.10	691	3.4
Farming . . . . .	462	4.16	138	1.49	600	2.9
Normal school . .	743	6.69	741	7.98	1,484	7.3
Business . . . . .	970	8.74	1,087	11.70	2,057	10.1
At home . . . . .	1,775	15.99	1,316	14.17	3,091	15.1
Professions . . . .	331	2.99	342	3.68	673	3.3
Domestic economy }	332	2.99	143	1.54	475	2.4
Agriculture . . . }						
Teaching . . . . .	689	6.21	182	1.96	871	4.3
Other occupations	1,832	16.50	1,076	11.59	2,908	14.3
Unknown . . . . .	583	5.25	704	7.58	1,287	6.3
Total . . . . .	11,100	100.00	9,289	100.00	20,389	100.0

**Characteristics of high-school pupils.** The abundant literature on adolescence presents two radically different views. The theory of saltatory development, which finds its most extended treatment in the writings of G. Stanley Hall, claims that the period of adolescence is marked by the sudden development of certain physical traits, accompanied by corresponding psychological changes. The following quotations illustrate this theory of development:

The years from about eight to twelve constitute a unique period in human life. The acute stage of teething is passing, the brain has acquired nearly its adult size and weight, health is almost at its best, activity is

<sup>1</sup> From Inglis, arranged from data given by G. S. Counts, "A Study of the Colleges and High Schools of the North Central Association," Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1915, No. 6.

greater and more varied than it ever was before or ever will be again, and there is peculiar endurance, vitality, and resistance to fatigue. The child develops a life of its own outside the home circle, and its natural interests are never so independent of adult influence. Perception is very acute, and there is great immunity to exposure, danger, accident, as well as to temptation. Reason, true morality, religion, sympathy, love, and æsthetic enjoyment are but very slightly developed. . . .

Adolescence is a new birth, for the higher and more completely human traits are born. The qualities of body and soul that now emerge are far newer. The child comes from and harks back to a remoter past; the adolescent is neoatavistic, and in him the later acquisitions of the race slowly become prepotent. Development is less gradual and more saltatory, suggestive of some ancient period of storm and stress, when old moorings were broken and a higher level attained. The annual rate of growth in height, weight, and strength is increased and often doubled and even more. Important functions, previously nonexistent, arise. Growth of parts and organs loses its former proportions, some permanently and some for a season. Some of these are still growing in old age, and others are soon arrested and atrophy. The old measures of dimensions become obsolete, and old harmonies are broken. The range of individual differences and average errors in all physical measurements and all psychic tests increases. Some linger long in the childish stage and advance late or slowly, while others push on with a sudden outburst of impulsion to early maturity.

Opposed to this theory of abrupt transition is that of continuous development, whose proponents are critical of the subjective basis on which the saltatory theory so largely depends. Thorndike says:

The one instinct whose appearance seems most like a dramatic rushing upon life's stage — the sex instinct — is found upon careful study to be gradually maturing for years. The capacity for reasoning shows no signs by any tests yet given of developing twice as much in any one year from five to twenty-five as in any other. In the cases where the differences between children of different ages may be taken roughly to measure the rate of inner growth of capacities, what data we have show nothing to justify the doctrine of sudden ripening in a serial order.

Speaking of the continuity of development as opposed to abrupt transition, King says:

Even on the physical side of child development this is perfectly true. The time of rapid growth, at the period of puberty, does not normally begin suddenly nor does it end all at once. Even though the actual rise in the curves of height and weight occur with seeming abruptness, the child has, in the years previous, been getting ready for this accelerated development. He has been laying by a reserve of energy, as is evident from the fact that when he has not lived as a child should, having his due share of nourishing food and of play and of sleep, when he has been shut up in unhealthful quarters and has had to work beyond his strength, he is apt to fail to develop as rapidly as most children do in the early teens. His pubertal development is, as we have seen, deferred and may be relatively abrupt.

**Pupil development and the secondary school.** These theories have important implications for the organization and conduct of secondary education. The saltatory theory would require, about the twelfth year of the child, an abrupt transition in the material of instruction and the method of control. In this connection Hall says:

Just as about the only duty of young children is implicit obedience, so the chief mental training from about eight to twelve is arbitrary memorization, drill, habituation, with only limited appeal to the understanding. . . . Here belong discipline in writing, reading, spelling, verbal memory, manual training, practice of instrumental technic, proper names, drawing, drill in arithmetic, foreign languages by oral method, the correct pronunciation of which is far harder if acquired later, etc.

For the period following the change which is assumed to take place at about the twelfth year, he says:

The drill methods of the preceding period must be slowly relaxed and new appeals made to freedom and interest. We can no longer coerce a break, but must lead and inspire if we would avoid arrest. Individuality must have a longer tether. Never is the power to appreciate so far ahead of the power to express, and never does understanding so far outstrip power to explain. Overaccuracy is atrophy. Both mental and moral acquisition sink at once too deep to be reproduced by examination without injury both to intellect and will. There is nothing in the environment to which the adolescent nature does not keenly respond. . . . Deep interests arise, which are almost as sacred as is the



hour of visitation of the Holy Ghost to the religious teacher. The mind at times grows in leaps and bounds in a way that seems to defy the great enemy fatigue, and yet when the teacher grows a little tiresome the pupil is tired in a moment.

The sharp differentiation which has existed between our elementary and high schools, both as regards the subject matter of instruction and the methods of control, would seem to fit in large measure the theory of sudden change in the pupil's development except that it does not coincide with the age at which this change is assumed to occur. Indeed, this is one of the arguments sometimes advanced for the introduction of the junior high school.

The theory of continuous development, on the other hand, would substitute for this abrupt transition in material and method a more gradual change to meet the expanding powers and interests of the pupil. An important aim of elementary education would still emphasize drill in fundamentals and the formation of useful habits, but not to the exclusion of reasoning, which has been found to depend not upon maturity in years but upon the experience of the child. The introduction of the social studies, general mathematics, general science, foreign languages, and industrial art in the junior high school makes it possible to expect a gradual transition adapted to the changes that are taking place in the pupil. The methods of control of the junior high school and the social life of the more homogeneous group make possible a better adaptation to the social needs of the pupils than has been possible in the upper grades of the elementary school. It is of great importance that the new school shall not undertake to become like the senior high school and thus transfer to the end of the sixth grade the sudden break which has existed between the elementary and high schools. It will serve its purpose only if it makes the process of education continuous from the elementary grades through the period of secondary education.

■

**Individual differences.** The fact that high-school pupils differ greatly in their physical and mental qualities and in their social background and surroundings is a matter of easy observation and common knowledge. These differences may be traced to heredity, environment and training, maturity, and sex as their causes. The rapid increase in the number of pupils of foreign birth or parentage, with their varied social inheritances of language, customs, and traditions, has greatly accentuated the importance of these differences in the management of our schools. It is still further accentuated by the rapidly multiplying enrollment of pupils of widely varying social experience, economic condition, and vocational outlook. The situation was vastly different when the secondary school provided for a small and fairly homogeneous group the cultural education prescribed for college entrance or for what were regarded as the higher walks of life. It is now imperatively demanded that the high school shall make such adjustments in its organization, social control, material, and methods of instruction as will meet the widely varying needs and capacities of its pupils.

*Physical differences.* Studies of distribution of ages in the grades show that the ages of pupils in each year of the four-year high school vary by from six to nine years. Such variation in age results in corresponding differences in height, weight, and physical powers. There are also very wide variations in physical qualities between pupils of the same age. The table on page 120 is computed from data given by Inglis regarding the heights of boys and girls from eleven and a half years of age to sixteen and a half years.

It will be observed that boys show a greater variability than girls except at the ages of twelve and a half years and thirteen and a half years, at which age girls show the largest amount of variation, whereas fifteen and a half years is the age of greatest variability for boys. The variation in height for boys at each age is approximately  $33\frac{1}{3}$  per cent of the

median height of all boys of the same age. There is a close relation between height and weight and the period of puberty. The age of puberty varies in individual cases by as much as five years: for boys it falls between the years twelve to seventeen, for girls between the years eleven and sixteen.

TABLE VII. MAXIMUM VARIATION IN HEIGHT OF AMERICAN BOYS AND GIRLS OF AGES FROM  $11\frac{1}{2}$  TO  $16\frac{1}{2}$  YEARS<sup>1</sup>

AGE	VARIATIONS IN CENTIMETERS	
	Boys	Girls
$11\frac{1}{2}$ . . . . .	48	44
$12\frac{1}{2}$ . . . . .	44	52
$13\frac{1}{2}$ . . . . .	52	52
$14\frac{1}{2}$ . . . . .	56	48
$15\frac{1}{2}$ . . . . .	60	36
$16\frac{1}{2}$ . . . . .	48	40

The differences in physical qualities, of which height and weight are the most obvious, due both to the variation in chronological age and to the difference in the time of puberty in individuals of the same age, raise serious problems for the administration of the high school. At this period the social interests and attitudes of pupils of such divergent age and physical development are not consistent with homogeneous group activities. The result is often a feeling of discontent on the part of the extreme cases, more particularly of the older or larger pupils. Isolated experiments have been made to obviate this by grouping pupils for class work according to physiological development, and the results indicate that some advantage is thus secured. The small size of most high schools precludes the possibility of this method except in the larger schools. In the extra-classroom activities, particularly in athletic sports, such grouping is more easily carried out and is more important. Schools which recognize the value of

<sup>1</sup> Computed from data given by Inglis, *Principles of Secondary Education*, p. 11.

physical sports for all have teams ranging from the "midgets" to the "heavy weights" and carry on series of intergroup contests of thrilling interest within the school. The practice of a few schools of promoting to the junior and senior high school on the basis of age rather than mere achievement is intended to relieve this disparity that commonly exists. Special classes to secure the more rapid progress of retarded pupils aim to secure the same result.

In the case of the younger pupils and of those who are physically undeveloped the considerations raised in the foregoing paragraph suggest the advisability of providing supplementary work suited to their capacities and interests, rather than of giving them the more rapid promotion for which their mental ability qualifies them. The cases of notable prodigies which are from time to time exploited in the press raise doubt as to whether their school experiences might not have been happier and richer and their achievements in mature life as great had they remained with the group with which they had most in common. Good administration here cannot be based on general formulas. The procedure appropriate to any individual pupil should be determined with reference to his peculiar qualities and needs.

*Mental differences.* The amount and quality of the performance of assigned tasks by the pupils of any recitation section show marked variations. In the ordinary classroom there will be found pupils who can perform from two to five times as much as other pupils in a given time or who can perform a task from two to five times as well. In sections selected on the basis of ability the differences are less, but still considerable. These variations may be due in part to differences in training, attitudes, or habits of work, but in large measure the cause lies in fundamental differences in natural ability. Numerous studies have been made showing the extent and wide range of these differences. The most extensive treatment of the subject is given by Thorndike in

the third volume of his "Educational Psychology," in which he gives a bibliography of about one hundred works referred to in his discussion.

An illustration of the extent of individual differences is given in Table VIII, showing the variation in arithmetical computation in 4502 eighth-grade pupils in New York City.

An abundance of material for determining differences in ability is available in the numerous group tests and subject-matter

TABLE VIII. VARIATION AMONG EIGHTH-GRADE PUPILS IN ARITHMETICAL COMPUTATION<sup>1</sup>

EXAMPLES DONE CORRECTLY IN TWELVE MINUTES	NUMBER OF CHILDREN MAKING SCORE	EXAMPLES DONE CORRECTLY IN TWELVE MINUTES	NUMBER OF CHILDREN MAKING SCORE
19	31	9	475
18	25	8	425
17	86	7	333
16	107	6	312
15	182	5	239
14	251	4	152
13	327	3	88
12	390	2	71
11	453	1	30
10	497	0	28

tests, some of which have been widely enough used to furnish sufficiently reliable means for use in school administration. For school administration the fact of individual differences is of extreme significance. The mere fact by itself, however, is of importance only as it affects our methods of dealing with pupils. How to adapt the forms of organization and the subject matter and methods of instruction to meet the needs of individuals is one of the most important problems of secondary-school administration.

The method of assigning pupils to different sections of the same subject on the basis of ability is being widely employed.

<sup>1</sup> E. L. Thorndike (after S. A. Courtis's "Report of Committee on School Inquiry," p. 46).



In some schools the work of the different sections covers the same ground, based on a definition of minimum essentials, the better sections doing work supplementary to that of the weaker sections. In other schools the sections advance at different rates. In the Ben Blewett High School, St. Louis, there are in each class three sections, one of which completes the junior-high-school course in three years, another in two and a half years, and the third in two years. The former method avoids some obvious difficulties in the later classification of pupils whose progress in the various subjects is so unequal. It is possible to obviate this difficulty in large part by placing sections of the same subject at the same hour and thus making it possible to transfer pupils to a slower or more rapid section in case their accomplishment warrants such change. It should be borne in mind that the results of mental tests as at present given are not infallible, and that there are other elements besides mental ability as determined by tests which have an important bearing upon success in school work. A combination of the results of intelligence tests and teachers' judgments is a more reliable basis of classification than either taken alone.

In most schools the number of pupils is too small and the schedule of recitations too inflexible to allow classification on the basis of ability. In these schools and, indeed, to some extent in all schools (for even in segregated classes considerable variations in ability will still be found) the problem can be adequately met only by adapting the instruction and work of the classroom to the abilities of the individuals composing the group. A later chapter on supervised study will take up in detail the methods of securing this adaptation.

**Social differences.** Under this head are included such differences as language, customs, and traditions, social experiences, interests, and attitudes, and vocational interests and outlook. These differences are due chiefly to heredity, economic status, and sex. It is not our purpose to attempt an

analysis of these differences, but to present their implications so far as they affect the administration of the school.

It should be noted that these differences, so far as they are the result of environment, are unlike physical and mental differences in that they are capable of modification. With respect to some of these, such as language, social attitudes, and conduct, it is desirable that uniformity be secured; with respect to others the aim should not be to secure uniformity, but to turn existing differences in directions likely to prove most serviceable to the individual and to society. The social contacts in the classroom and in the general life of the school should tend to produce a desirable uniformity of attitude, ideals, and conduct. However, only as definite aims and procedure are set up will this end be adequately attained. Later chapters will be devoted to a discussion of this phase of administration. The expansion of the curriculum with emphasis on vocational training, personal guidance in the choice of courses and vocations, part-time and continuation classes, the reorganization of subject matter to meet the interests and needs of pupils, represent efforts full of promise for meeting those differences in which uniformity is not to be sought.

Differences due to sex present problems of administration demanding careful attention. The physical differences of the sexes are too obvious to require mention. Such studies as have been made show that the mental differences between the sexes are too small to call for any difference in treatment on this ground. The mental differences between the sexes are insignificant as compared with those that exist between individuals of the same sex. In the field of social relationships, however, there are marked differences, some of which the school should seek to perpetuate, others, to remove. The barriers restricting certain vocational choices of the sexes are based on fundamental differences which are not subject to change. Certain tasks within the home naturally

fall to women, others are more suited to the physical capacities of men. The school undertakes to provide for these differences by offering to girls courses dealing with food, clothing, and the care of the home, and for boys other courses leading to the vocations peculiarly adapted to men.

In discussing the differences between the sexes which can be traced to environment and are therefore capable of change, one feels that he is on dangerous ground, particularly since he is dealing with matters of opinion rather than with scientifically reliable data. The fact that women have been restricted in their interests and activities (whether from a chivalrous desire of man to protect her or from a selfish desire to promote his own comfort is unimportant in this connection) has had a marked influence on the social attitudes and responses of both sexes. The realization of the social and political equality of men and women will profoundly modify these differences. The interactions of the classroom and the more informal but in some respects more important relations of the general social life of the school are the means through which these modifications are to be achieved. The importance to school administration of a proper organization and control of the social life of high-school pupils is being more fully realized.

There has been a tendency in the East, particularly in the large cities, to provide secondary education for boys and girls in separate schools. Most of the high schools in New York and Philadelphia are of this sort. That this tendency is giving way may be observed in the fact that three of the newer schools in the latter city are coeducational. Segregation is still the common practice in the most important of the private schools in this section. In the Middle West and Far West, however, coeducation is and has been from the first almost universal. Whatever traditional justification there may have been for the separate education of boys and girls during the secondary period has disappeared. The relief

from certain minor difficulties of administration afforded by separation of the sexes is secured at a far greater loss of the educational opportunities which are found where boys and girls mingle in the natural associations of life.

**Summary.** In this chapter the author has undertaken briefly to set forth the facts regarding the number, distribution, and characteristics of the secondary-school population which are of most significance in determining the administrative practices of the school. The principal will be well repaid by more extensive study of the literature of the field, especially the works of Hall ("Adolescence," 2 vols.) and Thorndike ("Educational Psychology," Vol. III, Part II) and the excellent analysis of Inglis ("Principles of Secondary Education," chaps. i-iv). By far the most important problems which affect the internal administration of the secondary school grow out of the differences between individuals in physical and mental qualities and in social background and outlook which have been discussed here. These problems have increased incalculably with the rapid growth in school attendance. They reach every phase of administration: the organization of curricula and courses of instruction, the methods of instruction, the classification and promotion of pupils, the direction of pupils in their choice of courses and of vocations, disciplinary control in its more formal routine aspects as well as in the more voluntary social life of the school. Some of the implications of individual differences as related to school administration have been referred to briefly in the present chapter; others will be discussed at greater length in later chapters.

### PROBLEMS AND QUESTIONS

1. This statement was made in 1911 by the teachers of the Washington Irving High School in New York City: "A public high school differs from an elementary school chiefly in the age of its children." In what respects is this not true in some high school which you know?

2. How do you account for the fact that the expectancy of completing the high-school course diminishes as the age of the pupil at the time of entrance increases?

3. Make a list of the factors which are reducing elimination from the high school.

4. In the light of the gradual development of pupils, what adjustments should the high school make in (1) its organization, (2) its disciplinary control, (3) its social life, (4) its materials and methods of instruction?

5. How may a school of one hundred and fifty pupils best deal with the factor of the differences in mental ability of its pupils? a school of one thousand pupils?

6. List the social differences of pupils which the school should undertake to remove and those which it should not undertake to remove.

7. What differences have you observed between boys and girls with respect to disciplinary and social control? How do you account for these?

8. What advantages to boys and to girls are found in coeducation? What disadvantages?

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## CHAPTER VIII

### DISCIPLINARY CONTROL

Discipline, as usually applied to school management, is a narrowly restricted term. It has ordinarily been thought of as the means of securing conformity of pupils to rules arbitrarily imposed from above.

Parker, quoting from Quick's "Essays on Educational Reformers," reproduces the following advice given to young teachers in the Jesuit schools:

You have everything to observe — the individual character of each boy and the general tendencies and feelings of the whole body. But be sure of one thing, namely, that *you* are observed also and a careful study is made of both your strong points and your weak. Your way of speaking and of giving orders, the tone of your voice, your gestures, disclose your character, your tastes, your failings, to a hundred boys on the alert to pounce upon them. One is summed up long before one has the least notion of it. Try, then, to remain impenetrable. You should never give up your reserve till you are master of the situation.

For the rest, let there be no affectation about you. Don't attempt to put on a severe manner; answer politely and simply your pupils' questions, but let it be in few words, and avoid conversation. All depends on that. Let there be no chatting with them in these early days. You cannot be too cautious in this respect. Boys have such a polite, such a taking way with them in drawing out information about your impressions, your tastes, your antecedents; don't attempt the diplomat; don't match your skill against theirs. You cannot do it without coming out of your shell, so to speak. Instead of this, you must puzzle them by your reserve and drive them to this admission: "We don't know what to make of our new master."

Do I advise you, then, to be on the defensive throughout the whole year and like a stranger among your pupils? No! a thousand times, No! It is just to make their relations with you simple, confiding, I might say cordial, without the least danger to your authority, that I endeavor to raise this authority at first beyond the reach of assault.

This conception of the teacher as a master whose authority is to be recognized and whose commands are to be obeyed persists to a greater or less extent in present school practice.

But the modern conception of the school as a segment of real life, a community in which the appropriateness of the conduct of its members and the rules and motives which control conduct are to be determined by the same criteria which apply to social relationships outside the school, has profoundly changed the theory of discipline. Instead of a master whose conscious aim was to maintain and secure the recognition of his authority on the part of pupils who often as consciously aimed to break down his authority, modern educational theory looks upon the teacher and pupils as forming a social group, working together to secure aims whose worth is recognized by all, and controlled by standards of conduct rationally determined in relation to these aims. Discipline is not, then, an end in itself, with rules arbitrarily set up and enforced, but takes its place as a part, contributing its important share to the larger ends which the group desires to achieve. It is like the oil which, by reducing friction, makes it possible for a complicated machine to perform its work.

**The aims of discipline.** The principal's responsibility for leadership in the social control of the school, both in its formal routine and in its more informal activities, has been pointed out in a previous chapter. It is necessary that he should have clearly in mind the principles on which effective control depends. These principles are implicit in the aims of discipline, which may be stated under two heads:

1. To secure for all pupils the most favorable conditions for learning.

2. To develop social ideals, attitudes, and habits which are desirable in school and in mature life.

These aims apply both in the ordinary routine of school management, to which the term "discipline" is usually confined, and in the more voluntary social life, commonly spoken

of as extracurricular activities, although with changing emphasis in the two fields. This chapter will discuss only the more formal aspects of discipline involved in routine management, leaving to the next chapter the more informal social activities of the school.

**Principles underlying discipline.** 1. *Discipline should be built upon a recognition of the rights and responsibilities of the members of the school as a social group.* In some instances the class forms the group; in others it includes the entire school. Infractions of discipline, then, are not offenses against the teacher alone, but against the group. The acceptance of this principle by pupils is not easy to secure, it is so thoroughly at variance with the traditional relationship between pupil and teacher. It is perhaps no easier to secure its acceptance on the part of teachers, for the inexperienced teacher usually finds the arbitrary, self-centered method of control easier and the older teacher usually has the habit formed. But the principal or teacher who persistently labors to build his discipline upon this foundation will relieve himself of many of the irritations peculiar to the teacher's life and will add an important factor in the training of his pupils. This does not mean that the teacher relinquishes his authority or substitutes for it some form of so-called pupil self-government. He is still in responsible charge of the group and may at times find it necessary to apply stern measures, but if he is wise and just he will feel himself strengthened and his disciplinary measures reënforced by the sanction of the group.

It is surprising to discover in what a different light a group will regard what might otherwise be considered a trivial offense when a little consideration is given to the question What if we all did it? The writer has many times found opportunity to discuss with individuals and before assemblies of the school the principle that the property of the school and its good name do not belong to any individual but to the entire school, and that one who damages either is injuring all.

Equally effective in developing good school morale on the positive side is the recognition of honorable achievement as an individual's contribution to the common store of the group of which he forms a part. The so-called "socialized recitation" and, to a large degree, the "project method" are based on the recognition of the class as a social group, working for a worthy end to the accomplishment of which each contributes his share. The socialized recitation does not consist in having a pupil preside and a secretary read the minutes of the previous meeting, though both of these features may be desirable details of procedure. It is no device by which the teacher transfers to his pupils responsibility for control and instruction. Enthusiasm for a new and much-lauded method, accompanied by lack of good judgment on the teacher's part, may result in a loss of effectiveness of instruction for which any gain secured in the direction of social coöperation is small compensation.

The socialized recitation, properly understood and conducted, adds greatly to the effectiveness of instruction through the improved attitude of the members of the group. The pupils do not attack their work as tasks to be performed solely to meet the demands of a teacher. They work for the group and they report to the group. Acceptance of the principle that the welfare of the group is more important than that of any member of it will at times involve the use of fine discrimination by the teacher. There is a tendency on the part of many teachers to defer decisive action in the case of troublesome pupils in the hope that a remedy may be found in some less drastic form than the occasion seems to demand. On the other hand, some teachers show the opposite tendency to speedy and drastic treatment of offenders. Both these tendencies may at times work against the good of the group. While no formula can be set up to determine proper action in such cases, the principle under discussion suggests a middle ground between the two extremes, avoiding in the first the

loss of effectiveness through treatment too mild or too long delayed and, in the second, the possible loss of confidence in the teacher's judgment and sincerity.

2. *Good discipline aims to secure the conditions most favorable for carrying on the learning process.* From the point of view of its immediate end this is the most important use of discipline. It is primarily to attain this end that schools exist. To the inexperienced teacher the classroom is likely to present a confusing succession of situations involving the necessity for disciplinary control. In most cases clear thinking on the basis of this principle would suggest the appropriate line of action; it might not suggest the most effective method to employ in a given case, for this comes only with experience. Many an experienced teacher who has acquired the ability to control his classes might well reflect upon this principle, for good "order" and good discipline are not synonymous terms. The criteria for most of the details of class management are derived from this principle. The ideal classroom situation requires that all pupils should be usefully employed all the time. Whatever promotes this is to be sought; whatever interferes is to be avoided as waste. Prompt beginning and closing of the recitation save time and tend to create an atmosphere of businesslike efficiency. The manner of entering, leaving, and moving about the room influences the work of the class. Besides its bearing on health, posture has a direct effect upon mental activity. Slouchiness in bodily position has a direct causal relation to inattention and poor thinking. Suitable sitting and standing posture is to be determined not by arbitrary standards but by its appropriateness to the task in hand. The requirement that pupils should always stand when speaking lacks justification when we consider that it sometimes interferes with the progress of the recitation, and that no such requirement exists in most situations outside of school. The constant raising



of hands and other vociferous indications of desire to take the place of the pupil who is attempting to recite not only is disconcerting to that individual but tends to substitute other forms of activity for quiet thinking. Not infrequently a pupil whose actions indicate unusual zeal is found, when called upon, to have nothing whatever to contribute. Whispering in class or study room should be forbidden, not because it is wrong in itself, for communication is instinctive, but because it interferes with the attainment of more important ends.

3. *Discipline should develop in the pupil the social ideals, attitudes, and habits which are desirable in mature life, to the end that he may become capable of self-direction.* The daily life of the school presents situations demanding all the forms of social coöperation and restraint that are met in life outside the school. The school should use these situations to establish in its pupils right ideals and standards of conduct and to fix in them habits which will persist through life. Morehouse<sup>1</sup> sums up the desired outcomes of discipline in this field, as follows:

1. The ability to control the body in all its activities — an ability that does away with scuffling, shuffling, limping, lounging, wriggling, as well as other evils springing from imperfect control.

2. The ability to keep silence under provocation.

3. The ability to conform readily and cheerfully to the uniform requirements of the school.

4. The ability to submit every decision as to conduct to rigid ethical standards.

5. The ability to yield first place to another without show of resentment or jealousy.

6. The ability to hold first place without a sign of arrogance or condescension.

7. The ability to yield to the opinions of others with grace and consideration, where no ethical sacrifice is involved.

<sup>1</sup> Reprinted from Morehouse's "Discipline of the School," by special permission of D. C. Heath & Co. All rights reserved.

The school ought not only to develop these abilities, but to make their exercise habitual. These habits should also be fixed :

1. The habit of accepting responsibility for one's actions squarely.
2. The habit of considering the good of the group as above the interest of self or clique.
3. The habit of performing to the best of one's ability the duties of any position which he may hold.
4. The habit of loyally supporting those to whom responsibility for leadership has been given.

Opportunities for the development of these abilities and habits abound in the classroom, the study halls and session rooms, the assembly, the lunch room, the corridors, in the various clubs, and on the playgrounds.

### METHODS OF DISCIPLINE

**Positive methods.** The methods of discipline fall under two heads, positive and corrective. An effective scheme of discipline undertakes to provide situations in which proper conduct becomes natural and easy and resorts to corrective measures only in those cases which do not conform to requirements which are accepted as reasonable by the school. The content of courses and the quality of instruction determine to a large extent the attitude of pupils toward the work of the classroom and are thus important factors in discipline. In the ideal recitation proper deportment should be inherent in the situation, and the application of repressive or corrective measures should be unnecessary. The general morale, or tone, of the school determines in large measure the attitudes and conduct of pupils in their social relations with one another and with the officers and teachers. In the ideal school good conduct should grow out of the mutual respect of all, both pupils and teachers, for one another and the desire of each member for the highest welfare of all.

The extent to which these ideals for the classroom and the school as a whole are attained depends upon the care

with which standards of conduct are set up and defined and the success with which compliance with these standards is secured. The requirements for the routine aspects of management should be simple, clear, and reasonable and should be applied uniformly and with careful insistence. Unreasonable requirements or the erratic enforcement of requirements, of whatever sort, make against the establishment of uniform habits so necessary to a smoothly running school. With respect to the more informal requirements of social usage it is more difficult, but hardly less important, to have standards defined and accepted by the school. It is often best to develop these gradually as occasion demands by placing emphasis for a time on some phase of conduct; for example, proper behavior in assembly or corridors. Committees of teachers may prepare a code of standards for this purpose. The coöperation of the pupils through the student council or other similar group is highly desirable in order to secure the sanction which is necessary for the general acceptance and enforcement of the standards set up.

The South Philadelphia High School for Girls has adopted an extensive and detailed manual of manners. There are five general headings, as follows:

1. Manners in school
2. Manners in the home
3. Manners in public places
4. Business manners
5. Behavior with boys

Under "Manners in school" may be included (1) corridors, (2) lunch rooms, (3) classroom, (4) assembly, (5) general, and (6) dress.

The scope of the entire manual may be seen from the following twelve items which are included under the first of these:

#### *Corridors*

1. Do you always keep to the right and pass quickly and quietly?
2. Do you watch where you are going in order to avoid collisions?

3. Do you apologize if you bump into a teacher or student and try not to offend in the same manner again?
4. Do you use the elevator only when necessary?
5. Do you stand in line while waiting for the elevator?
6. Do you always pass to the back of the elevator and face the front?
7. Do you help to keep the corridors clean?
8. Do you remember to go up to the person to whom you wish to speak instead of shouting?
9. Are you careful not to drop the clothing of others in getting to your own?
10. Are you careful (without blocking the passageway) to open the door for a teacher or another girl with whom you happen to be?
11. Are you careful not to run the risk of injuring someone by rushing out of the classrooms?
12. Do you always try to leave a passageway in the hall before school and at dismissal?

This manual was prepared by a committee of the faculty with the assistance of five subcommittees, one for each of the main divisions. The reports of these committees were submitted to the entire faculty for discussion and adoption. To devise ways of making the manual effective in the conduct of the school a committee on methods was appointed. The following outline shows the use made of assembly talks, demonstrations, moving pictures, dramatization, class discussions, conferences with pupils, and constructive activities of pupils in connection with the subtopic "Table manners."

1. Shadowgraph, accompanied by a talk, illustrating good and bad table manners: assembly.
2. Dramatization of good and bad table manners, including "table talk": assembly.
3. Demonstration of a table beautifully and properly set for dinner, luncheon, breakfast, and between meals, to be served without a servant: front hall.
4. Moving pictures showing tables and other home scenes: assembly.
5. Class discussion followed by reading of the section of the manual: classrooms.
6. Discussion of slogans, placards, and other material reminders: classrooms.

7. Manufacture of the above by the pupils under the direction of the art department.
8. Conference with pupils: How shall we teach the next section of the manual?
9. Conference with the faculty, led by the methods committee.

One of the most effective means of developing desirable social attitudes and habits is found in the extra-classroom activities when they are properly organized and controlled. The next chapter will be devoted to a discussion of these activities.

The plan of relieving from certain requirements the older pupils who have proved their ability to practice self-direction is sometimes adopted with beneficial results. The author has granted to seniors freedom from study-room attendance during their free periods, requiring only that they should meet their classroom appointments and that their conduct at all times should not interfere with the orderly routine of the school. This privilege was granted only to those whose work was of good quality and was withdrawn whenever it was abused. The privilege was highly prized; however, in very many cases the pupils having the privilege were present during the entire day and carried on their work under exactly the same conditions as those who had not earned the exemption, the feeling that they were not working under external compulsion being sufficient reward. Such provision for training in self-direction is of great value in preparing for the transition from the close supervision of the high school to the relatively un-directed life of the college.

**Pupil self-government.** In some schools there is a considerable degree of control exercised by the pupils themselves under the so-called system of pupil self-government. So far as this means the coöperation of pupils in devising ways of organizing and conducting the affairs of the school community, and the acceptance by them of some degree of responsibility for carrying out the requirements of the school, the



plan has much to commend it. The term, however, is misleading, if it seems to imply that immature young people, however well-intentioned, can safely be relied upon to devise or to carry out the methods of control necessary in the complicated life of the modern school. There are numerous descriptions in the literature of school administration of attempts at pupil self-government. In their extreme types these have usually imitated the forms of organization of mature society, often with emphasis on the repressive side, with officers of detection and courts of justice through which offenders against the requirements of the school society are apprehended, tried, and sentenced by their fellows. It is claimed that practical civics may best be taught in this way, that pupils develop greater independence, a higher sense of honor, and more consideration for the rights of others. These desirable ends have doubtless been secured to some extent through the operation of the plan under favorable conditions. However, its adoption by principals who have not considered sufficiently the details of the plan or by those who were not adapted to this peculiar method of control has led in many cases to its failure and abandonment. There is actually no such thing as successful pupil self-government. The guiding personality of the principal, however skillfully he may conceal himself, is one feature essential to its success. It may further be said that this form of organization is often highly artificial, and the duties which the officers assume with the offices to which they are elected are likely to become uninteresting and arduous.

It is possible, however, to secure the advantages that result from pupil participation in social control without resort to the artificial form of organization described above. Through a student council or other representative group selected on a natural and democratic basis, with wise supervision by school officers, many responsibilities may be placed in the hands of pupils with great gain to the general good spirit and deport-

ment of the school, and with incalculable benefit both to the pupils whose capacity for leadership is discovered and turned into useful channels and also to the larger number who are learning to play their part in a democratic society by giving willing obedience to requirements accepted as reasonable and to representatives properly chosen from their midst. Opportunities for development of social responsibility are thus to be found not only in the organization of the extra-classroom activities of the school, but also in control of study halls and library, traffic in the corridors, and other similar forms of routine. The Washington Irving and De Witt Clinton high schools in New York, the William Penn High School in Philadelphia, and the Wendell Phillips High School in Chicago are typical of a large number of schools in which a large degree of pupil control is effectively exercised.

**Corrective methods.** In the complicated situation presented by the school, despite the best efforts to secure effective control by preventive or indirect methods there are sure to arise many occasions which demand repressive or corrective measures. Even in the smaller schools there is great variation in the ability of pupils to understand the meaning of directions. Every principal knows that this variation is not confined to pupils, but is found in the members of his staff as well. There are also equal differences in social attitudes and habits, due to variation in social environment and methods of control outside the school. There are a few pupils with natural or acquired traits which place them in the class of social defectives.

Methods of corrective discipline should conform to the following principles:

1. The means of correction should be associated in the pupil's mind with the undesirable act.
2. They should act as a deterrent to the repetition of the act by the individual and indirectly as a deterrent to the performance of the act by others.
3. They should be selected with consideration of the circumstances connected with the act and the qualities of the individual concerned.

Some common forms of misconduct, such as absence from school or class or tardiness, may be made subject to definite rules and may be handled in a somewhat arbitrary manner. But even such cases require good judgment as to the best methods to be employed and careful discrimination in dealing with individual offenders. With respect to these as well as the various forms of misconduct of less common occurrence, the principal should determine the methods of correction in the light of the principles stated above. Some forms of correction commonly employed will be found desirable, others will readily appear to be undesirable or of doubtful value.

**Undesirable or doubtful methods.** 1. *Any punishment inflicted in anger* is undesirable. The hot-tempered principal, subject to frequent explosions, may be feared by the timid pupil but offers an incentive to the adventurous youth to create a diversion. Even though the penalty inflicted in anger may act as a deterrent, the lack of self-control and the possibility of injustice involved tend to diminish the respect which every principal should wish his pupils to have for him. There are occasions which require quick decision and severe treatment; there are none which require loss of self-control by the principal. An ungoverned temper has proved the undoing of many a man.

2. *Corporal punishment.* This form of penalty was formerly employed for a great variety of offenses, from failure in learning Bible verses to outbreking rebellion against authority. Dr. Hall cites the classic case of a German school-master whose record for fifty-one years included more than a million blows with various wooden implements, as many more inflicted by the hand on the offenders' heads, besides a liberal number of such penalties as kneeling upon peas or triangular wooden blocks, "carrying the mare," and "holding the high rod," the last two of which he claimed the distinction of inventing. Bagley discusses the topic at length, from the point of view of the elementary school, with the following conclusion:

Corporal punishment is at its best only a tentative measure, designed to teach the child the initial lessons of decency and order. It is an extremely effective agency for fulfilling this function if it is used temperately and with good sense. Its possibilities of evil are incalculable if it is used in any other way.<sup>1</sup>

In the high school its possibilities of evil so far outweigh any good results that might follow its use as practically to exclude it from consideration. Indeed, in some states there are laws prohibiting the infliction of corporal punishment. It is doubtful if any situations occur in the high school in which some other method would not prove ultimately more effective, except in cases of abnormal pupils, to be classed as defective or degenerate. The welfare of the group demands that such pupils be excluded from the school and that provision for their suitable control be provided in institutions adapted to their needs.

3. *The use of threats.* It should be taken for granted by all that wrongdoing will meet its sure reward and that repeated offenses will be treated with increasing severity. Except possibly in certain types of offenses whose treatment may be reduced to mechanical routine, it is rarely wise to announce in advance the exact form of punishment which will follow a given misdemeanor. Experience often proves that the circumstances under which an offense occurs make it extremely difficult to inflict the pronounced penalty. The principal then finds himself in the dilemma of having to choose between the failure to make good his previous declaration and the infliction of a penalty which his judgment would not otherwise commend. Threats often serve as an incentive to pupils to try out the principal, or in schoolboy parlance "to call his bluff." The weak principal threatens in haste and repents at leisure; the wise principal trusts in his ability to meet each situation adequately when it arises.

<sup>1</sup> W. C. Bagley, *Classroom Management*, p 117. Reprinted by permission of The Macmillan Company, publishers.

4. *Detention.* Detention after school or from recess is very commonly employed. For the performance of reasonable tasks which have been neglected, this seems an appropriate penalty. That it is so often ineffective in reforming offenders, particularly when employed indiscriminately as is often done, places this in the group of doubtful methods. The greater enjoyment which some pupils find in forms of activity not related to their school tasks makes detention no deterrent, particularly when they find themselves in a considerable company of kindred spirits and also observe that other pupils, whose tasks are punctiliously performed, regard it as a desirable privilege to remain in classroom or library after school or during recreation periods. Good school management sets up other incentives for regular and punctual work which are more effective than any penalties yet devised. The inconvenience and frequently the irritation to which enforced detention subjects teachers at the close of the day is a factor of no small importance. As a remedy for tardiness detention might seem to have better justification. The author was once principal of a school in which the practice had prevailed of requiring thirty minutes' detention with setting-up drill for tardiness for whatever cause. It was found that some boys deliberately chose to substitute this for attendance upon the twenty-minute assembly with which the day began. The requirement that habitual offenders should report thirty minutes before the opening of school proved an effective means of meeting the situation.

5. *Sarcasm or ridicule.* Sarcasm or ridicule as instruments of correction are to be condemned without reservation. Their frequent, or even occasional, use makes against the feeling of mutual confidence so essential to the proper relations between pupils and teachers. The sarcastic teacher appears to be taking advantage of her position to inflict pain in a manner against which the pupil has no redress. The feeling of resentment thus created is sure to find expression in ways too



familiar to need discussion. Teachers should guard against an inclination toward sarcasm or ridicule, for the habit once acquired grows with the years. It is all the more insidious because in its origin it is closely related to that saving virtue, a sense of humor, from which it differs only in its underlying spirit.

6. *Forced apology.* An apology given unwillingly fails to secure the ends of discipline and causes resentment which may extend far beyond the individual. The author recently heard of a case in a large high school in which a pupil was required to make apology before the entire school. The humiliation felt by teachers and pupils was not accompanied by any corresponding feeling on the part of the offender. Restitution in kind is always to be desired in case of offense, and apology, when genuine and given without compulsion, goes far in the direction of atonement. But a forced apology is worse than none.

7. *The assignment of extra tasks.* The writing of Latin lines has been a common penalty in English schools, and has its counterpart in this country in extra tasks assigned as punishment for offenses of many sorts. Even when the performance of these tasks has value in itself, the penalty usually fails to meet our first principle in that it has no connection with the undesirable act which it is desired to correct. It has the further fault that it tends to make distasteful an act which should be desirable. Setting-up drill after school as a punishment for tardiness, already referred to, is a case in point. When pupils are required to copy pages from a textbook or to write over and over again a single sentence or list of words, the penalty is likely to arouse nothing but resentment. The teacher employing such methods reveals a surprising lack of originality or good sense in devising constructive methods of discipline.

8. *Deprivation of marks.* It is pointed out in Chapter XV that there is a positive causal relation between deportment

and the quality of school work. The reduction of marks or denial of credit for work already done is unfair in principle and ineffective in practice. This does not mean that credit may not be withdrawn when pupils are discovered in acts of dishonesty in connection with school work, but such cases should be rare and should be handled with careful discrimination and regard for justice.

9. *Demerits.* A more or less elaborate system of assigning demerit marks for misconduct is found in some schools, more often in private schools of the military type. A scale of demerits, presumably carefully weighted, is drawn up for misdemeanors ranging from failure to shine one's shoes or smoking a cigarette to telling a lie. Demerits may be "worked off" by doing penance in extra study hours or by marching around the "bull ring" carrying a musket at a fixed number of hours per demerit. The incurring of a certain number of demerits may result in the deprivation of privileges or in suspension or expulsion. The reduction of discipline to a system of bookkeeping with debit and credit items of offense and restitution results in a calculating attitude both on the part of teachers and pupils quite at variance with the spirit of discipline as set forth in this chapter. The total number of demerits is the only really significant factor, and the resulting penalty, of whatever nature, has little relation to the offenses for which the demerits were assigned.

10. *Penalties without consideration for individual differences.* All forms of punishment should be classed as undesirable which do not conform to the principle that penalties should be selected with regard to the circumstances connected with the act and the qualities of the individual concerned. No rule should be set up and no penalty should be so exactly defined as to preclude all possibility of discrimination in dealing with an individual offender. The really strong principal is hampered with such restrictions; the weak principal finds himself in even greater distress.

**Desirable methods.** Among the methods of correction the following may be listed as sound in principle and effective in application:

1. *The use of group judgment.* Any form of pupil participation in social control, whether through the extreme forms of pupil self-government or in more restricted delegation of responsibility for individual or group control, involves the use of group judgment as an instrument of correction. It is most important that the principal should not appear to be manipulating the situation to secure through the use of certain leaders his own ends. He must, of course, be in a position to give intelligent and sympathetic guidance, but he must not employ compulsion to enforce his desires through the guise of pupil control. Where pupil judgment is wrong or inadequate to meet a situation, he must take the matter into his own hands. For an effective use of group judgment the standards of conduct should be understood and accepted by the group. The student council or some similar representative body provides the best agency for the formulation of standards of conduct and methods of enforcement of group judgment. The extent to which this method may be used and the details of its operation will depend upon the varying social conditions of different schools and the temperamental adaptability of the principal for this type of control.

In a school of good morale the judgment of the group regarding the quality of an act may usually be relied upon; regarding appropriate penalties for misconduct the judgment of the group or of its representatives is subject to the inherent defects of immaturity and needs constant oversight and guidance. There is a tendency to overseverity when pupils are given the responsibility for assigning penalties for misconduct, which, if not guarded against, may place the principal in an embarrassing position. This incident from the author's experience illustrates the point. The pitcher of the ball team

had "swiped" a baseball belonging to the opposing team. Without the principal's knowledge of the event or of their subsequent action the senior committee, who exercised a salutary but somewhat undefined authority in the social control of the school, took action, suspending the boy from the team for two weeks and requiring him during this time to spend the period of team practice in work upon the school grounds. The principal's attention was attracted to the matter by the sight of the boy hauling cinders in a wheelbarrow for the repair of the running track. That the boy fulfilled the requirement without complaint was evidence of good school morale. That the penalty as carried out was probably more effective than any the principal himself could have devised, had he handled the case himself, is also true. It is evident, however, that unpleasant complications might have arisen had the boy shown less readiness to comply with the judgment of the committee.

2. *Deprivation of privileges.* Because the school aims to develop the ability and habit of self-control, good discipline should progressively substitute opportunities of self-direction for external restrictions. These opportunities should be regarded as privileges to be earned and retained, and to be withdrawn when pupils prove unable or unwilling to use them properly. The classrooms, library, corridors, assembly, and playground offer countless opportunities for such privileges. An illustration in point is the senior privilege of self-direction during study periods mentioned in an earlier paragraph. The varied social life of the school is especially rich in such opportunities. The holding of offices in clubs or other organizations should be made contingent upon the satisfactory performance of school duties as a prerequisite, and failure to meet reasonable requirements should result in the relinquishment of the office. The privilege of representing the school in athletic or other contests should likewise be given only to those who meet the reasonable requirements of the school.

3. *Suspension and expulsion.* Closely related to the previous paragraph are the penalties of suspension and expulsion. Attendance upon the school is not an inalienable right (at least in the high school) but a privilege. However, the practice of suspending pupils and requiring them to return with their parents for reinstatement is to be condemned when it is frequently employed; it is an effective measure when employed infrequently and with careful discrimination as to the nature of the offense and the qualities of the pupil and his parents. The same considerations apply to suspensions from the classroom by teachers. To be rid of a troublesome pupil even for an hour gives a comfortable sense of relief, but the remedy often fails to be permanently efficacious, for the enforced separation, at least at the time, may seem as desirable to the pupil as to his teacher. The frequent and indiscriminate use of suspension is an evidence of weak control. Suspension and, to a larger degree, expulsion should be reserved for cases of an extreme character and should be administered only rarely and when all other methods have failed.

4. *Reports to parents.* The purpose of sending reports of unsatisfactory work or conduct to parents is to secure their coöperation in remedying undesirable situations. In cases in which they are followed by no evidence of coöperation they sometimes serve as a safeguard against later misunderstandings. Generally, however, parents will be found to welcome these reports as evidence of interest in their children's welfare and will respond in a helpful manner. It is the practice in some schools to report at short and stated intervals all pupils who are not doing satisfactory work and to request an interview with the parents. Causes of failure may thus be ascertained and remedies applied before it is too late. In this connection it may be recommended that principals send occasional reports to parents whose children are doing work of exceptional excellence or have shown notable improvement



over previous achievement. The principal should avoid giving the impression to pupils or parents, more particularly in cases of misconduct, that he is unable to handle the situation and is trying to shift to the home responsibility which really is his own. The authority and the responsibility for control rest with the principal. In connection with discipline he should consult parents only when their coöperation or a fuller acquaintance with the facts is necessary for him to meet the situation adequately.

**Summary.** Effective disciplinary control should be built upon a recognition of the rights and responsibilities of the members of the school as a social group. It aims to secure for all pupils the most favorable conditions for learning and to develop the social ideals, attitudes, and habits of conduct which are desirable, both in school and in mature life, to the end that pupils may become capable of self-direction. An effective scheme of discipline places emphasis upon positive rather than corrective methods, undertaking to provide situations in which proper conduct becomes natural and easy and employing corrective measures only where conformity to reasonable requirements cannot otherwise be obtained. The school should be so organized, both in its more formal routine and in its less formal social life, as to provide the largest possible opportunity for acquiring the ability and habit of self-direction in accordance with accepted standards of conduct. When corrective measures are necessary they should be selected on the basis of these principles: (1) they should be associated in the pupil's mind with the undesirable act, (2) they should serve as a deterrent to the repetition of the act or its performance by another, and (3) they should be selected with consideration of the circumstances of the act and the qualities of the pupil concerned. The final test of a principal's ability to set up an effective system of disciplinary control is not applied while he sits at his desk, directing affairs in person; it is when he is temporarily absent or

resigns his position that the real test comes. Only if the life of the school goes smoothly on in his temporary absence or until his successor has had time to establish himself in his new position can it be said that the aims of discipline have been achieved.

### PROBLEMS AND QUESTIONS

1. One of the pupils persists in humming in a low tone in an English recitation after the teacher has requested that it be stopped. In irritation the teacher asks each member of the class if he has made the disturbance and receives from each a denial. The situation is reported to the principal. What should he do?

2. What effective means have you found for preventing tardiness?

3. Two boys receive permits to go from the study hall to the library. The librarian's record at the end of the day does not show that they reported in the library. What should be done about it?

4. To what degree is the school responsible for the manners of pupils at home?

5. Outline in some detail the steps you would take to make disciplinary control more educative in a school in which your predecessor in the principalship had exercised the arbitrary type of control.

6. What unpleasant complications for the principal might have arisen from the incident of the senior committee's treatment of the baseball pitcher described on pages 145, 146?

7. Mention some circumstances in which expulsion from school would be justified.

8. What forms of punishment would you add to, or subtract from, those enumerated in this chapter as desirable or undesirable?

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## CHAPTER IX

### THE EXTRA-CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES OF THE HIGH SCHOOL

It is the nature of boys and girls of adolescent age to seek social enjoyment in groups. In the less complicated life of an earlier period young people were satisfied with the less varied and simple pleasures which were offered in the home and social activities of the community. The social life of that period would seem dull and restricted to youth of the present time and to the mature mind may seem to have lacked the control and direction which would have made it more educative for participation in the social life of mature society. At any rate it served its immediate purpose for the youth of the day and has now largely disappeared as a result of the rapid decrease in the proportion of rural population and the introduction of the forms and standards of urban pleasures into village life. The home is now able to provide for these social enjoyments only in a small degree, and in most cases does so hardly at all. The church attempts to do something in this direction for those whom it is able to reach, but it is restricted by lack of suitable leaders and of the facilities required to give variety and permanent attractiveness to the work. The Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations are meeting the needs of a restricted though increasing number. But the street corner, the vacant lot, the billiard hall, and even less desirable places are often the only places in which the natural instinct for group enjoyment finds opportunity for its full development. Under these conditions it is small wonder that the satisfaction of this desire for social activity on the part of young people has

often taken forms annoying to the older and more serious members of the community, if not positively harmful to the young people themselves. But while the home, the church, and similar organizations are unable to meet the social needs of the adolescent boy and girl, the high school is peculiarly adapted to this end. It is the natural center for the promotion and proper regulation of this side of the pupil's life. Thrown together intimately during a large part of their waking hours, the pupils most naturally form their social groups from their schoolfellows. The classes form natural units for competition in athletic games; the pupil's interest in literary, musical, or artistic activities often makes it possible to turn his social instincts in directions which promote his intellectual and æsthetic development. There is also the additional advantage that the authority of the teachers (which controls the pupils as no authority outside of the school does) if extended sympathetically to the social life of the pupils assures a better regulation than can possibly be provided in any other way.

The school did not for a long time recognize its responsibility for this larger social control. Athletic, literary, debating, musical, and art clubs, with the other forms of social activity natural to this period, were not thought of by school authorities as means of securing important educational ends. Save as a principal or teacher had a chance interest in some particular form of the social life of his pupils, little attention was paid to these features of school life except to repress or control their troublesome developments. For proof of this one need only look through the proceedings of our educational societies and the periodicals of secondary education, where he will find numerous articles dealing with the pathological side of the situation. Prominent among these are numerous papers dealing with the difficulties arising from the financial mismanagement of school athletics and the low standards of sportsmanship prevailing in high schools. Perhaps the

best illustration of the serious consequences of the prevalent attitude of school authorities toward these matters is found in the school fraternity, which grew up and flourished in response to a real need of the pupils for the satisfaction of which the school made no provision. But neither the difficulties connected with school athletics nor the more serious ones of the school fraternity can be permanently removed by the method of repression. Unless we give more serious and intelligent consideration to the real nature of the problem we shall find ourselves again confronted by the same difficulties in another form. We cannot change the nature of boys and girls nor should we try to do so. Only as we come to understand them and work sympathetically with them can we expect to secure peace for ourselves and an adequate social training for them.

The English schools, since the time of Arnold, have recognized the importance of sports in developing the many qualities which make for leadership. One need only visit the playing fields of Rugby on the afternoon of a half-holiday and watch the boys at play, or walk through the cricket clubhouse (where no lockers are necessary to insure the security of one's possessions) to realize that there are standards of honesty and sportsmanship attainable among boys which we have as yet hardly begun to hope for. It is true that the boys in these schools come from a distinct social class and present a homogeneity of ideal and training which is found in none of our public high schools and is only approached in a few of our private schools, yet the traditions and practices of the great public schools of England are the result of an appreciation of the possibilities of utilizing the natural social instincts of the boys and of a definite plan of organization for the purpose of securing through these the best possible training for the leaders of the next generation. Notable success has been secured in the same direction in some of the English municipal day schools, which are very much like our public



high schools. The most valuable lesson which we may learn from the English schools is in their recognition of the value of the more purely social activities as a means of training youth and in their methods of organizing these activities in such a way as to secure the best results.

In the preceding chapter we have referred to the form of organization often described under the misleading caption of pupil self-government. This does not, as an essential part of its operation, make provision for those natural social activities to which we have just referred as so prominent in the life of the English public schools. In these the house, in which from forty to sixty boys live, forms the natural unit of organization of the social life. On entrance to school a boy is placed in a certain house, of which he continues to be a member so long as he remains in the school. In this house center all his social interests and enthusiasms. For its honor he strives in football, cricket, and the other forms of contests, feeling greater concern only for the honor of his school as a whole. The same method of organization has been employed in many English day schools, the boys being divided into groups called "houses" (carrying over this name from the boarding schools), although of course they do not live together in separate houses. Among the advantages of this method of organization are the following: the houses form units of convenient size and provide a large number of positions in which boys are learning how to be effective leaders; the permanency of the group makes it possible to build up strong and helpful traditions; the presence in the same house of boys at different stages of advancement brings the younger boys into intimate relation with their leaders and provides for the control of the younger by the older boys.

This house method, with some modification, has been adopted in some of our American boarding schools and by one at least of our public high schools at Grand Rapids, Michigan. What we may learn from the English school,

however, is not so much in the direction of formal organization as in the attitude of the teachers toward the social life of the boys. In England the secondary-school teacher feels it as much a part of his work to share in the sports of his boys on the playground as to instruct them in the classroom. It is not difficult to trace to its source the real reason why sport is enjoyed by English boys for its own sake and why the low standards of honesty and sportsmanship so often found in American schools are not to be found there. Instead of placing our teachers in responsible charge of the boys at their games, more often we leave them without supervision or give them into the hands of professional coaches whose personal habits are frequently questionable and whose chief desire is that their team may win at whatever cost. It is absolutely essential to the proper organization and control of the social activities of the high school that the teachers shall recognize their value and share in the responsibility and labor involved. It is only fair to expect that time and effort spent by teachers in these directions shall be taken into consideration in the amount of other work assigned in the more formal work of teaching.

**Principles of organization.** There are two fundamental principles for an effective organization of the extra-classroom activities of the school. One has to do with the basis of participation, the other with the means of control.

*1. Participation should be open to all on the basis of absolute democracy.*

*2. The social organization of the school should be under the control of the faculty.*

1. Membership in all organizations and participation in all forms of social activity should be open to all on the same basis. Restrictions based on class membership or on differences in age or physical development do not violate this principle; neither do the natural divisions between boys and girls in certain activities peculiarly adapted to either sex.

There are other necessary restrictions as to the extent of participation of individuals in the various types of activities. These will be discussed in connection with the methods of control. With these natural limitations equal opportunity should be given to all to take up any form of social life which the school affords. The classes form natural groups, in which certain social activities center, but in various literary, scientific, musical, and other clubs no such basis of selection may be appropriate. In these similarity of interest offers the basis for the formation of groups. In the conduct of the various activities themselves there should be the same scrupulous care to preserve the spirit of democracy in the form of organization and methods of election to positions of responsibility.

At this point a more extended reference to fraternities and sororities is pertinent to our discussion. The real objection to these organizations, which have secured a strong foothold in many schools, is not that they tend to lower the standards of conduct and scholarship of their members, though it has been shown in many cases that this is the case. The fundamental objection is that they are undemocratic in spirit and practice: they control admission to membership from within by standards often inconsistent with the best social ideals and they divide the school into cliques which seek to exercise control in the social life quite out of proportion to their numbers and to secure the promotion of their members to positions of prominence without regard for their merit. Legislative methods of repression by states or separate school systems, though frequently attempted, have seldom proved effective; on the contrary, they have more often aggravated the evil by driving these organizations to methods of deceit and sometimes to open rebellion in which they have occasionally been abetted by parents of the members. As has already been stated, the fraternity originated in a perfectly natural desire for group activity, in imitation of the college fraternity, which has always had a peculiar glamour for the

eyes of the high-school boy. There is added the natural attractiveness of the mystery and regalia, which are outward aspects of the fraternity. We are paying here the penalty of our earlier neglect to provide the means of social expression in more desirable forms. We are pursuing a stern chase and are finding it hard to overcome the handicap with which the race began.

Where fraternities already exist the experience of many schools suggests that the wiser course may lie in the direction not of immediate suppression but of what may be called "benevolent assimilation" through faculty coöperation and control and the gradual development of a democratic tone in the social life of the school. The author has elsewhere described his experience with this method in the University of Chicago High School, in which secret societies had obtained a strong position among both boys and girls. For a year the question was considered by faculty, parents, and pupils. As a result of extended discussion it was decided by vote of the Parents' Association to rid the school of these organizations. A pledge was required from the pupils who were then members that they would take no further members into their societies from the classes below those already in the school. The original societies, with constantly diminishing membership, had a legitimate existence in the school for a period of four years. During this period a constructive plan providing a varied social life on a democratic basis was inaugurated, with the result that, aside from occasional sporadic attempts to perpetuate the old régime, which were dealt with vigorously, the fraternity problem was finally solved in a satisfactory and permanent manner.

Another administrator recommends the method of vigorous and immediate suppression and cites its success in the Lincoln High School, Nebraska. This action, however, was preceded by a careful study of the conditions existing in the school and of practices of other schools and was accompanied

by a well-organized plan for democratizing the social life of the school. The reader is here referred to the articles by Superintendent Newlon and Miss Pound cited in the references at the end of this chapter.

2. Responsibility for the control of the social activities of the school of course rests on the principal, who should delegate to committees and individuals of his staff specific duties to be performed in accordance with clearly defined policies. He should be in close touch with all social activities, and matters of importance should be referred to him for his advice or approval. The following list of committees, which may be varied as the needs of any school make desirable, is suggested: (1) committee on athletics, (2) committee on literary clubs, (3) committees on science and art clubs, (4) committee on musical clubs, (5) committee on publications, (6) committee on social parties, (7) auditing committee. These committees should be appointed for a period of a year and should make written reports at stated times to the principal.

**Specific policies.** There should be carefully defined policies regarding the following matters:

1. *Faculty advisers.* Each organization should have a faculty adviser. It might appear more consistent with democratic methods of procedure to allow the different organizations to select their own advisers. However, for the sake of economy and a more equitable distribution of the work it is better for the principal to appoint all advisers. It should be understood that the function of teachers assigned to different groups is advisory, not repressive or directive; otherwise the pupils will be robbed of the opportunities for exercising that degree of initiative and responsibility which constitute the most valuable outcomes in social training. The adviser should be a member of the group, ready to contribute whatever her more mature experience makes possible or desirable for the success of the group's activity.



2. *The formation of new clubs.* The appropriate committee should consider and decide upon all applications for the formation of new clubs. This may well be made a function of the Student Council. Applications may be made for organizations whose purposes are not consistent with fundamental policy. More often unnecessary duplication of activities already provided for will be involved. Wherever possible, considerable latitude should be allowed, for no small value comes from testing the ability of a group to make a place for itself and to carry out the program which it proposes. It is possible for a school to be "over-clubbed," but with reasonable restrictions as to the amount of participation allowed to an individual this danger may be avoided.

3. *Time of meetings.* Some schools make provision for club meetings as a part of the regular daily schedule. This makes it possible for some pupils to enjoy the advantages of participation in these activities who would be unable to do so were meetings held at other times. This is particularly desirable in the junior high school, where it is also easier to introduce this feature than in the more complicated schedule of the senior high school. The more usual practice is to hold meetings immediately following the school session. The holding of meetings in the evening introduces difficulties in control which render it extremely undesirable. Schedules should be adopted placing clubs with similar activities at the same time, thus allowing pupils a greater variety of participation. A suggested schedule follows: Monday, music clubs; Tuesday, literary clubs; Wednesday, science clubs; Thursday, arts and crafts clubs; Friday, social parties.

4. *Place of meetings.* All clubs should meet on the school premises. So far as possible this principle should also be applied to social parties. Desirable simplicity in manners, dress, and financial expenditure can thus be more easily secured, and the customary surroundings of the school render the necessary control more natural and easy.

5. *Limits of participation.* It is desirable that all pupils should participate in the extra-classroom activities of the school. The extent to which this participation may go without detriment to the pupil's health or the performance of other necessary tasks cannot be reduced to a formula of universal application. It is probably best to leave this to the judgment of the pupil or to that of his mature advisers. Some schools restrict this to participation in the work of two clubs. Restrictions should be placed on the number of offices which an individual may hold at the same time, both for the sake of conserving the pupil's time and to allow opportunities for exercising responsible leadership to the largest possible number. A classification of these positions into major and minor offices and the limitation of the number of positions which a pupil may hold at one time to one major or two minor offices are recommended. Eligibility for holding offices and for participation in athletic or other contests with other schools should be restricted to those pupils who maintain satisfactory scholarship records. Representing the school thus becomes a privilege to be earned by the faithful performance of school tasks, and the danger of devoting undue attention to these activities is reduced.

6. *Financial control.* The program of extra-classroom activities should be no more extensive than can be properly financed without undue appeal outside the school and without restricting the participation of pupils of slender means. It is not uncommon, particularly in the case of athletic games, to secure financial support from sources or in amounts which tend to take the control out of the hands of the principal or to make him responsive to influences subversive to the welfare of the school. The practice of giving dramatic or other performances for the purpose of raising funds is also subject to serious objections because of the inevitable demands upon the time and strength of the participants. The raising and disbursing of funds frequently results in waste through

extravagance, carelessness, and even dishonesty. Cases are on record of misappropriation of funds by teachers. A close check should be placed upon the amounts to be raised and expended, and an accurate system of accounting and auditing should be maintained. The most satisfactory plan provides for a general fund from which appropriations are made to the major activities. The treasurer of this general fund should be a teacher. Many of the clubs require no financial outlay or, at most, only small amounts, which may be provided as needed by the members under the oversight of the club adviser. An auditing committee of teachers should devise uniform methods of accounting, see to it that all persons handling funds are properly trained in their use, and audit all accounts at stated intervals. All reports when audited should be submitted for final approval to the principal and then should be published in mimeographed form or in the school paper.

7. *The award of honors.* It is customary to grant some form of insignia, usually the school letter, to those who merit distinction for services to the school. This is most frequently granted only to those who have represented the school in interschool athletic contests. Members of class teams are sometimes awarded the privilege of wearing class numerals. The frequent practice of awarding sweaters, watch fobs, or similar articles of value to members of athletic teams has no justification. The money expended might be better used in extending the social opportunities of the entire school, and the impression that the successful athlete has earned rewards of intrinsic value is subversive of the ideals of good sportsmanship. That the school emblem can be secured only by athletic prowess places an undue emphasis upon the one form of social activities which is least in need of encouragement. It is highly desirable to reward meritorious service in other activities by extending the range of the school emblem. If it is thought desirable, slight modification in the form of the emblem may designate the particular field in which the

service has been rendered. The practice of the Ben Blewett School in St. Louis is suggestive. The "B" is awarded to boys and girls for marked success in (1) citizenship, (2) scholarship, and (3) extra-class activities of many sorts. The limitation is fixed that no pupil may earn the "B" for distinction in any one of the three divisions unless his record is satisfactory in each of the others. There is further provision that the school emblem may be won only by continuous achievement. The first time the emblem is won the pupil receives a bronze button; the second time, a silver button; and the third time, a felt letter, to be worn on a sweater. Much interest has been shown recently in honor societies, membership in which is secured by special merit in scholarship or social achievement alone, or on a broader basis of good citizenship.

**Forms of extra-classroom activities.** The social activities found by an examination of the handbooks of the schools and of the journals of secondary education make an imposing list. They may be classified as follows:

- |   |  |
|---|--|
| 1. Art clubs  | 14. Journalistic clubs ✓   |
| 2. Assembly ✓   | 15. Literary clubs ✓   |
| 3. Athletics ✓  | 16. Musical clubs, choruses, glee clubs, orchestras, and bands     |
| 4. Camera clubs   | 17. Parties ✓  |
| 5. Charitable and welfare clubs, Junior Red Cross, etc. | 18. Publications   |
| 6. Camp Fire Girls                                      | 19. Public-speaking clubs  |
| 7. Class organizations                                  | 20. Science clubs  |
| 8. Debating clubs ✓                                     | 21. Scouting (boys and girls)                                      |
| 9. Discussion clubs                                     | 22. Student council ✓  |
| 10. Dramatic clubs                                      | 23. Thrift organizations   |
| 11. Foreign-language clubs                              | 24. Vocational clubs: home training, industrial, agriculture, etc. |
| 12. Hiking clubs  |  |
| 13. Honor societies                                     |  |

The mere listing of these activities is in most cases sufficient for our purpose. A fuller discussion of some of the most important is given in the following paragraphs.

*Assemblies.* The assembly furnishes the only occasion when the school is conscious of itself as a group. Some schools, unfortunately, are so large that an assembly of the entire school is impossible. Some schools hold a short assembly at the opening of each day; in others, a longer period is set aside at stated intervals, usually once a week. The daily assembly is likely to be perfunctory in character, and the weekly assembly, though causing difficulties in schedule making, is to be preferred. The programs should be planned well in advance and with regard to the important purposes which the assembly may serve. A faculty committee should be made responsible for the programs, in conjunction with which representative pupils should serve. The spirit of the socialized recitation should pervade the assembly, and the pupils and teachers should share in the planning and execution of the programs. Whatever worthily engages the interest of the school is appropriate for the assembly, whose platform should be the clearing house of the school's corporate life.

Each program should make provision for the school to express itself in unison. This may take the form of singing school songs or other songs, religious or secular; formal religious services, where these are required or allowed; concerted cheering on occasion; the salute to the flag or other pledge of allegiance. If participated in by all in the spirit appropriate to each form of expression, this part of the program not only contributes to the enjoyment of the assembly but also exerts a powerful though subtle influence upon the general tone of the school.

The practice of securing speakers from outside the school should be employed infrequently and with discrimination. Few persons, however eminent in their special fields, are able to speak effectively to high-school pupils. It is better to build the programs from the life of the school itself. Interclass contests in public speaking, musical numbers by glee clubs and orchestras, short dramatic performances, the celebration



of national holidays and birthdays of distinguished men, the awarding of school emblems, and innumerable other interesting phases of the school life furnish means of securing a wide participation of pupils. It is well to assign to various clubs responsibility for assembly programs in turn. One of the most successful programs in the experience of the author was a dramatization by the editorial staff of the process by which an edition of the school daily was prepared and distributed, including the assignment of events to be covered, the collection of news, the preparation of copy, the work of the composing and press rooms, the reading of proof, and the final distribution of the finished production. A pleasing variety was secured by the introduction of lantern slides to represent one part of the process. The entire performance required but forty minutes.

The assembly is a sure index to the quality of the school's life. It furnishes the best opportunity for setting up standards of individual and group conduct on which good school morale is built.

The principal's part in the assembly, thus conceived, is not a conspicuous one. He will wish from time to time to speak of matters relating to school policy or routine, but he should restrain any natural tendency to occupy the center of the stage too long or too frequently, realizing that when he needs to speak, his words will be all the more effective. He should never make announcements regarding pupil activities; these should always be made by pupils from the platform. It is not even necessary that he preside, for the democratic quality of the assembly is more fully secured if some representative of the club presenting the program or the president of the school council occupies the chair. In a thoroughly socialized assembly the proper conduct of the audience is not dependent upon the commanding sweep of the principal's eyes. It provides opportunity for the exercise of initiative and responsibility in planning and of group coöperation in

performance. It gives training to a large number of pupils in effective public appearance before a critical audience. It motivates the social activities of the different clubs. It helps to give unity and meaning to the complex life through which the modern high school undertakes to prepare youth for the duties of democracy.

*Athletics.* By reason of the natural interest in physical games and of their spectacular nature, athletics is by far the most popular form of social activity among high-school pupils. The prevalent tendency to regard athletic games as something to be won rather than to be enjoyed for their own sake has made them of doubtful value and, indeed, has often led to serious abuse. Where emphasis is placed solely, or even largely, upon interschool competition, the benefits of physical training are gained by relatively few and generally by those who need them least. Indeed the severe and highly specialized training of these few is often detrimental to health and to the quality of more important school work. The importance attached to victory frequently leads to practices quite contrary to the ethical standards which should form the basis of the social life of the school. Since it is regarded as an indispensable evidence of school loyalty that all should "support the team," such practices are most insidious and far-reaching in their effects upon school morale.

It is possible to make athletic sports contribute valuable elements to the social as well as the physical development of secondary-school pupils. To do this, those who are responsible for our schools must get a new and enlarged idea of the value of physical games. If it is worth while for fifteen boys to play football, it is worth while for two hundred to play the game. It should be the aim to give all pupils a chance to participate on even terms and under careful control in a widely varied range of athletic games. We may learn much from the practice of the public schools of England in this regard. Several private schools and a few public high schools

in this country are putting into effect this large and rational plan of athletic organization. The author has described the situation existing in the University of Chicago High School in an article containing the following paragraphs:

Last year we had two hundred and twenty-nine boys enrolled in the school. Interclass games to the number of one hundred and sixty-two were played in the following sports: football, basketball, baseball, track (indoor and outdoor), indoor baseball, swimming. The total number of boys on these teams numbered 370. Seventy-six interschool athletic games were played in the following sports: football, soccer, basketball, baseball, swimming, track (indoor and outdoor), golf, and tennis. The total number of boys on these teams numbered 164. The total number of boys participating in intraschool athletics is seen to be more than twice as large as in interschool athletics, and the total number participating in both numbered 534. From this it will be seen that each boy in school, on an average, took part in two forms of competitive athletics. The number of boys who did not take part at all was almost negligible. All these interclass games were played on school grounds under the immediate control of members of the department of physical education or, in a few cases, of older boys in the school. These class contests lead to warm rivalry and serve to interest the pupils in games in which they themselves participate. The teams representing the school in contests with other schools are developed as a sort of by-product of the interclass games while they serve as a strong incentive to the development of athletic skill throughout the school. Last year's football team was typical, in which all the members save one had been members of the school from the beginning of their high-school course, and this one, who was a senior, had entered the school at the beginning of his second year and played on his class team for a year before finding a place on the school squad.

This large participation of boys in competitive sport is approached by the girls, who have class series in basketball, baseball, tennis, and swimming, although the number of games appropriate for girls is less, and basketball is the only game in which there is interschool competition.

As having no small bearing upon the moral effects of athletics as conducted in the University High School, it is significant to note that all the boys who secured their emblems in interscholastic sports secured for the entire year 18.4 per cent A grades, while the entire school secured 18.2 per cent, and only 2 per cent failing grades, while the percentage of failure of the entire school was 6.2. The twenty-five boys

who secured emblems in two sports each had not a single failing mark for the entire year.

As I look back over the years during which this system has been developing I can see many specific evidences that the moral tone of the school has been greatly improved through athletics. There has been a growing spirit of democracy which now recognizes and rewards real worth. A few years ago a boy of excellent quality and the best track athlete in the school did not receive a vote for the captaincy, while the boy who was elected did not win a point in any meet of consequence for the year. The boy who deserved the position happened to be working his way through school, while the other boy had the superficial claim to social preferment which money gives. This year a younger brother of this first boy, who is also earning his own way through school, is captain of our baseball team by unanimous vote. I remember when the members of the football team were given sweaters, watch fobs, or other articles of value at the close of the season, and if they had been asked why they had received these gifts they would have said that they had earned them. Now no athlete receives anything but a simple letter costing a few cents, and he is proud to receive this as recognition by the school that he has deserved well because he has done his best as their representative. A large part of his personal equipment, such as shoes, each member of a team provides for himself. The cost of athletic equipment now is less than half as much as it was when the number of teams and contests was considerably less. Accompanying this growth of a democratic spirit, there has been much less tendency to develop the swaggering, boastful type of athlete. Our best athletes are now likely to be modest and unassuming, and there is frequently evidence that the school admires them the more because of this.

Among the various organizations of the school there is none that is more effective in furthering the best ideals than the Captains and Managers' Club, which, as its name suggests, is composed of these representatives of all the athletic teams of the school. This club takes up not merely questions pertaining strictly to athletics, but questions of moral conduct, both on the field and in the other relations of school life.

Such a scheme as is here described may seem impossible in schools of larger size by reason of restricted equipment and personnel. Its approximation is within the reach of most schools if the importance of athletic games for all is recognized and a plan is put in operation for the gradual development of athletics on this basis.

*Honor societies.* There is a widespread movement toward the establishment of honor societies for the social recognition of special merit. Some of these are represented in several schools and have secured considerable prestige. Some recognize scholastic merit alone, like the *Cum Laude* Society, which is found chiefly in private schools, and the *Pro Merito* Society, which has a considerable vogue among Massachusetts schools. The Arista League, which is found in most of the high schools of New York City, gives recognition to the pupil who maintains a high standard of character, service, and scholarship. Membership in this society is secured by pupils above the second year on election by the pupils' assembly and approval by the faculty senate. A serious attempt is being made by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals to standardize honor societies in the high schools of the country by the establishment of the "National Honor Society," whose purpose is defined in these terms: "To encourage the development of character, to create enthusiasm for high scholarship, to promote effective leadership, and to stimulate a desire to render conspicuous service among the students of American high schools."

Considerable heat has developed in discussion among the protagonists of the various societies in existence and those who would reduce them all to a uniform standard; others object to any form of honor society on the ground that they are undemocratic and tend to introduce an element of snobishness based on intellectual or social achievement. The aims of all of them are worthy, although differing in scope, and in the schools in which they are established they are claimed by competent observers to produce desirable results. It is doubtful whether "enthusiasm for high scholarship" can be engendered in any large degree by so remote an end as membership in an honor society, or whether a "desire to render conspicuous service" should be motivated by the quest for social distinction. Emphasis should be placed less



upon the recognition of merit as deserving reward than upon the obligation for further service which membership in an honor society entails upon its members.

✓ *The school council.* A representative body, usually called a student council, serves in many schools as a medium of understanding and coöperation between pupils and faculty. The degree of responsibility placed upon the council varies greatly in different schools. In some, matters involving infractions of discipline are referred to the council for consideration and decision, and penalties as severe as suspension are inflicted; in others the functions of the council are merely advisory. The extent to which the council may wisely be allowed to share in the management of the school depends upon the morale of the school and the training which individual pupils have received in responsible leadership. Unless ideals and standards of conduct, definite and high, are generally accepted and habitually practiced, responsibilities of control cannot safely be intrusted to pupils. It is better to proceed cautiously, allowing the council to deal in an advisory capacity with matters pertaining to the social life. Recommendations regarding such matters may come from the council to the faculty and from the faculty to the council. The scope of the activities of the council may be wisely extended as experience justifies. Careful guidance by the principal or representative teachers is essential at every point.

The form of the organization varies widely. Some principals secure good results without formal organization, preferring to work with individuals or groups of pupils who have developed capacity for leadership. Pupil councils are frequently composed of members elected by different groups, classes, or clubs. It is important that the council shall be representative in scope and thoroughly democratic in the method of election. The presidency of the council often is regarded as the most important office in the school and the president performs such important duties as presiding over

assemblies and otherwise representing the school in his official capacity. In the University of Chicago High School the author developed a student council whose membership was composed of those in the upper two classes who had secured membership in three honor societies, one based on scholarship and the other two on social achievement, one each for boys and girls. A meeting of this large group was held each month, and a smaller executive council, elected from the entire group, met each week.

*Discussion clubs.* Clubs for the discussion of the vital problems of youth have played an important part in many schools. These have usually been conducted under the auspices of the Y.M.C.A. and have enrolled many thousands of boys. The author for many years met a voluntary group of boys from his school each week for a dinner, which was followed by a discussion of some problem of vital interest to the group. These discussions resulted in permanent and far-reaching influence upon the tone and life of the school. It is of utmost importance that such a club shall not be regarded by the principal as an opportunity for preaching or moral propaganda, but as an occasion for frank discussion, in which he serves the part of a wise and not too talkative guide. It is equally important that the activity of the club shall go beyond discussion and issue in definite forms of conduct in the wider life of the school.

*Social-service activities.* The school falls short of the highest social ideals if its activities aim only to secure the immediate enjoyment or profit of its members. There should be a definite purpose to develop a broader interest in the welfare of those outside the school and to find means for the natural expression of this interest. The war furnished abundant opportunities for such expression in the drives for government loans and for funds for various forms of relief, in which the schools played an important part. It is not possible nor desirable that the same degree of interest should be given to

such activities as prevailed in those abnormal times. There are always, however, in the larger cities opportunities for altruistic expression in connection with social settlements, hospitals, or organized charities. Some schools make special contributions of money or useful gifts at Thanksgiving or Christmas through these organizations. It has been the custom of one school to provide a Christmas entertainment for the old people at a social-settlement house, the preparation for which engaged a number of clubs and the classes in industrial art. The dramatic club in the same school has given several performances at this settlement; and in return children from the settlement have had a share in entertainments at the school in folk-dancing and music, with the mutual respect and enjoyment of all. Individual pupils frequently serve as play directors or club leaders in settlements. It is desirable, so far as possible, to lift this social service above the mere giving of money to the level of actual participation in the preparation of gifts or of actual personal service. There is less opportunity for such altruistic expression in smaller communities, but it is always possible to find means of securing outlet for a broader social outlook through some form of community service.

*Parties.* Social parties often present serious difficulties of control. For the sake of simplicity and ease of supervision it is desirable that all such parties should be held at the school and at the close of the regular school day. Responsibility for control should be shared by teachers and parents and may often be delegated to committees of pupils. In the University of Chicago High School it has been the practice for many years to hold a dancing-party in the gymnasium each Friday afternoon. The following quotation from an article by the author describes the conduct and the results of these parties:

This is in charge of the teacher who gives the regular class instruction in gymnastic dancing. There are also other teachers present and always a considerable number of parents. The party is open to all members of

the school but to no one else. No one is allowed to enter after the party opens nor leave until its close, and all who are present participate. The dancing usually takes the form of a cotillion in which the figures are so devised as to secure a frequent and general mixing of the participants. The party closes formally, the parents and teachers standing in line to receive the good nights of the pupils as they pass out. These parties are largely attended, are evidently greatly enjoyed, and are marked by naturalness in the relations of the boys and girls toward one another. The period since these parties have been held has witnessed a constant diminution in the silliness which is supposed to accompany the relations of boys and girls at this age and a corresponding increase in natural and unaffected conduct in the presence of one another. At the end of the autumn and winter quarters two of these parties are made special occasions, one for the two lower classes, the other for the two upper classes. At these the Parents' Association provides favors, refreshments, and special music.

It is unfortunate that many communities do not approve of dancing as a recognized school activity. The inevitable result is that dancing-parties are held under conditions in which suitable control is difficult or impossible. What might otherwise be made an effective means of training in social coöperation often becomes a source of demoralization to individual and school morale.

**Summary.** The natural tendency for young people to form groups for social enjoyment offers an opportunity, under careful guidance, to secure important educational ends. The school is better able to utilize and control these activities than any other agency. Two important principles must be observed: (1) participation should be open to all on the basis of absolute democracy, and (2) the social organization of the school should be in the control of the faculty. This control, while centered in the hands of the principal, should be exercised through committees of the faculty in charge of various types of activity. The aims should be (1) to secure general participation of the pupils in the forms of social life suited to their interests and capacities; (2) to develop social ideals and habits of conduct in conformity with the highest standards;

(3) to discover and develop capacities for leadership; (4) to develop in all habits of responsibility either as leaders or as members of a group.

### PROBLEMS AND QUESTIONS

1. To what extent do other agencies outside the school provide for the social activities of boys and girls of high-school age in your community? List the agencies and the forms of activity for which they provide.

2. Why should the high school take a different attitude toward fraternities than do colleges toward similar organizations or mature society toward fraternal societies for adults?

3. How may the extra-classroom activities be made to furnish motive to the work of the classroom?

4. Which of the twenty-four forms of extra-classroom activities enumerated may not be definitely related to classroom work?

5. Why is the term "extra-classroom" better than the usual designation "extra-curricular"?

6. Make a classification of major and minor offices in some school with which you are acquainted.

7. What desirable ends are secured through interschool athletics? What undesirable results have you observed?

8. Why should all coaches be regular members of the school staff?

9. Should girls' teams play interschool games?

10. Outline in detail a good assembly program.

11. What steps would you take to organize a council in a school that had been used to arbitrary control without student participation? What functions should you expect the council to perform during the first year?

12. What social-service activities could be profitably undertaken in a high school of one hundred and fifty pupils?

13. What other forms of entertainment besides dancing are appropriate for school parties?



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## CHAPTER X

### TRAINING IN ETHICAL CHARACTER

In the curriculum of our early schools religion and morals occupied an important place. The religious emphasis of the instruction is reflected in the textbooks which have come down from those days. Notable among these is the "New England Primer," the foreword of an excellent reproduction of which contains these statements:

The "New England Primer" was one of the greatest books ever published. It went through innumerable editions; it reflected in a marvelous way the spirit of the age that produced it, and contributed, perhaps more than any other book except the Bible, to the moulding of those sturdy generations that gave to America its liberty and its institutions.

Whatever moral delinquencies the youth of those days exhibited cannot be attributed to a lack of religious instruction, for every incentive that the hope of heaven or the fear of hell could offer was held continually before them. Modern pedagogy would have rejected this material as foreign to the child's experience, to say nothing of the experience of adults, had it not already been removed as contrary to the principle of religious liberty embodied in our democratic form of government, which has demanded the complete separation of Church and State. From the one extreme of overemphasis upon religious instruction we have gone far toward the opposite extreme of ignoring altogether the need of moral training of children in our schools.

Of late the danger involved in this tendency has been recognized, as is evidenced in various ways. Not long ago frequent reference was made by public speakers to our "godless public schools." The National Education Association

for several years expressed in resolutions the feeling of the need of moral training in the schools and devoted considerable space in its programs to a discussion of methods to be employed. The Moral Education League of Wisconsin, associated with the State Teachers Association, has inaugurated experiments in formal instruction in ethics in several high schools of the state. Many private schools, like the Ethical Culture School in New York City, undertake systematic instruction in morals as an important part of their work. Numerous books designed as textbooks in morals have been published and are used in various schools. The Religious Education Society has held several conferences on the subject of "Moral Education through the Public Schools." The National Institution for Moral Instruction, Washington, D.C., has given much attention to the formulation of morality codes and, through the offer of very substantial prizes, has secured the coöperation of experts in every part of the country. The need of instruction in personal and sex hygiene has been keenly felt, and group instruction in this subject has been undertaken in many schools.

In general, however, we have not yet passed the stage of discussion of the needs of moral education and the theoretical aspects of the methods to be employed. Some of those who have given thought to the question at all are debating whether the direct or the indirect method of giving instruction in morals is preferable; many, both parents and teachers, are of the opinion that instruction, at least in some phases of morals (for example, sex hygiene), belongs to the home and should under no circumstances be attempted in the school.

**The present situation in the schools.** One who is at all familiar with existing conditions knows that the conduct of high-school pupils often violates basic moral standards and that these violations are frequently overlooked or condoned by teachers and parents. Consider the matter of property rights. Not only is the high-school boy often without the

standard that prevents him from appropriating articles not his own which are within easy reach, but steel-maker and locksmith have not yet been able to devise a locker strong enough to withstand his strength and ingenuity. Even that which is nailed down is not absolutely safe. The inaccessible appeals to his instinct for adventure. Not all pupils are thieves; in fact, very few are, but there is often current, even among those whose moral standards are fairly high in other respects, a fine distinction between "swiping" and stealing which defies definition, but which is appealed to in explanation of delinquencies of this sort. One sometimes meets an attempt to explain the situation on the ground that our democratic social order throws together, in the same school, boys from homes of culture and the sons of immigrants and others of low social standing. One might accept this explanation, in part at least, did not experience show that it is not always Isaac Goldstein or Pietro Luigi who is caught with the plunder, but quite as often those whose names indicate native ancestry. The writer was speaking before a meeting of parents in an aristocratic suburb on the moral phases of high-school life, and in the discussion that followed one gentleman felt called upon to defend the moral standards of his community by claiming that any such conditions as were described were due to the presence in the school of the children of foreigners. After the meeting closed, a teacher in the high school told me that the worst case of thieving which had come to light during the year involved the son of the clergyman of the leading church in the town.

Another form of the same practice is seen in the collection of souvenirs of every sort made by boys while they are on athletic trips or in the towns where boarding schools are situated. Street signs, silverware, towels, and even bedding from hotels and dining-cars are considered fair plunder and often adorn the rooms in school and college dormitories or serve more practical purposes. To avoid arrest the foot-

ball team of a well-known school was obliged, on arriving at its destination, to surrender a motley collection of articles "swiped" from the dining-car on the way. A few years ago on one of the long trips which are sometimes taken at the season's end to determine which of two teams representing regions far apart is superior, a certain high-school team secured not only athletic fame but wide notoriety as well by reason of the wholesale plunder gathered along its route. High-school boys have abundant precedent for such practices in the conduct of college students and even of school officials. A college alumnus recently told me that the supply of towels and bedding in his fraternity chapter house was always renewed at the close of the tour of the glee club from the unofficial proceeds of the expedition. A superintendent of schools from a large city displayed to a group of schoolmen, awaiting the arrival of a train at the close of a meeting of the National Education Association, a spoon which he had slipped into his pocket at his hotel table and was taking home to his wife as a souvenir of the trip.

In athletic contests there are perhaps afforded the most frequent exhibitions of dishonesty. This has most often to do with the eligibility of players. A few years ago in the public-school league of one of our largest cities a controversy arose over the age of one of the players. A comparison of the records which he had made in two schools revealed the fact that between the first and second records he had in some manner lost a year from his life. Mistakes often occur in school records; but this discrepancy was significant because the former record, if correct, made the boy above the age of eligibility for athletic competition. There was presented in the case an amazing body of documents, including statements from the boy's parents and an affidavit from a physician in another city, who declared that on a certain date he had been present at the boy's birth. Careful investigation failed to discover any such physician in the city from which the docu-



ment purported to come. It was plain from the evidence that the case involved palpable fraud, and the boy was finally adjudged over age, in spite of the statements of his parents to the contrary. The moral injury in cases of ineligibility is often shared not by one or two but by many, sometimes by a whole school, who feel that they must, if necessary, lie not once but many times to defend what they are pleased to call the honor of their school. The evil is thus all the more insidious, because it involves the exercise of the generous instinct of loyalty to one's school. The instance recently brought to light of a wholesale violation of the amateur requirement, involving a large number of the members of the football teams of two universities, reveals a shockingly low moral tone pervading amateur athletics, which it is to be hoped (but cannot be assumed with certainty) was confined to the two institutions involved.

Cases of dishonesty are not infrequent in which persons in authority in the school have guilty knowledge of the facts. The principal cannot escape responsibility by placing the blame on the coach or any other subordinate. He may know, and should know, what is going on in this important phase of the school's life, and the responsibility is his in every case. Sometimes teachers or principals are accomplices in fraud. Some years ago there came to the attention of the writer the case of a young instructor, in charge of a baseball team on a trip to another school, who actually played on the team, assuming the name of one of the boys. The youth of the teacher, together with the fact that as coach of the team he felt an unusual desire for its success, may be given as an explanation of his conduct but not as an excuse for it. No such explanation could be suggested for the following case. A boy, with his father, came to the writer's office to arrange for entering the school. In the course of the interview the conversation led to his life in the school from which he came, a school whose published

announcements lay claim to consideration because of the strong moral influence exerted upon its boys. The boy referred with pride to the fine record of their football team, saying that they had never lost a game on the home ground, although on one occasion it had looked as if they would lose when their principal (whom he called by name) had put into the game, under an assumed name, a former graduate of the school, of great fame on the gridiron; his skill had led to the discovery of his identity and his removal from the game. The writer was much struck by the fact that this incident seemed in no remotest way the cause for the contemplated change of schools in the mind either of the father or of the son.

However demoralizing such conditions in public or private schools are, they can hardly equal those existing in some Sunday-school athletic leagues organized for the purpose of promoting an interest in this department of church work. In public-school leagues more or less responsible control is exercised by authorities, but in the case of Sunday-school athletic competition this is largely lacking. In a certain city the rivalry between schools led to a great influx of lusty boys for the two Sundays of attendance required by the rules of the league prior to the decisive contests. In this respect the effect is like that of the approaching picnic of former days. One morning the writer noticed in the list of winners of the events in the annual Sunday-school track meet the names of a Jewish boy and a Catholic boy in his own high school. They were called to the office and asked if they had joined the ——— Church. With sheepish smiles they said that they had not joined the church, but had entered the Sunday school two weeks before to help it win the championship of the city. When asked if they thought this was in accordance with the standards of sportsmanship which their high school had been accustomed to maintain they said, "No, we're just plain ringers, but we thought as it was a Sunday school it would be all right." Another case, reported

on good authority, was of a boy who added substantially to the victory of a Sunday-school team who had never been in the school at all, but had attended the required two Sundays by proxy, having sent another boy to register under his name.

Another form of dishonesty is frequently found in the relations of the pupil to his teachers. This appears in the preparation of school tasks, in false or equivocating excuses for failure to meet the requirements of school routine, and sometimes in more flagrant forms, such as the forging of credentials from one school to another. The writer has the record of the case of a pupil quite unfitted for college who gained admission to a university by presenting a forged certificate and remained in the institution several months before his trickery was discovered.

There is a double standard of honesty, still too prevalent, which allows those who would not think of lying to a fellow pupil to tell the most glaring falsehoods to their teachers. One is reminded of the student's definition of a college dean as quoted by Dean Briggs: "A man you lie to and get mad with for not believing you." And while one must usually commend the sense of honor which prevents a pupil from giving information against a fellow pupil which would work to his damage, it is a matter for regret that one who is known to practice deceit in dealing with his instructors does not seem to lose caste among his fellows. The mother of a high-school senior spoke regretfully to the writer of her inability to convince her daughter that a group of pupils who had stolen an examination paper and had done a lively business in selling copies to their fellows had committed a serious offense.

**The causes of the present situation.** The writer has not painted this gloomy picture of the conditions with respect to moral standards in our schools from narrow observation or because he is a pessimist; after an experience of twenty-five years in a somewhat wide range of secondary schools,

he considers himself a thoroughgoing optimist. There is, however, nothing to be gained by refusing to see the facts. On the contrary, a recognition of conditions as they are is a prime essential to any constructive program of improvement. What are the causes of this lack of moral discrimination among our boys and girls (for the case with the girls is not essentially different from that of their brothers)? One who studies the situation is led to the conclusion that these instances are but illustrations of the result of a fundamental lack of moral standards in society at large. In the school there is undoubtedly more emphasis placed upon ideals of proper conduct and a more insistent effort to realize these ideals than in the community outside the school. Schoolboys are doubtless actuated by motives as high as those prevailing in the community at large and are probably as honest in their sports as their fathers are in business or politics. Again, schoolboys naturally try to imitate the practices of college students, and the evils of college life, unfortunately, are likely to be presented to him in more attractive colors than the serious side of the college student's life. They make a better story either for the newspaper or for conversation. The high-school fraternity owes its inception largely to this tendency of high-school pupils to imitate college life. School athletics tend to take on the overspecialization and the extravagant expenditure and display of college athletics, with their elaborate equipment, professional coaches, and trips halfway across the continent. The elaborate codes of rules governing intercollegiate athletics reflect the evils which they attempt, sometimes vainly, to remove; and faculty committees dealing with charges of athletic ineligibility often reveal gross negligence of what is going on under their supposed control, or an attitude of suspicion toward rival institutions and a desire to secure an advantage over an opponent rather than to discover and act upon the real facts of the case. The immediate cause of most of the difficulties in

athletics is the inordinate importance which the winning of the game has in the schoolboy's mind. For this we can hardly blame him when we consider that this is the general attitude of the public toward sports.

**The school's responsibility.** If the moral tone of the community is reflected in the school, the responsibility for the situation as it exists cannot be placed upon the secondary school. The school's opportunity, however, for laying the foundation for a higher social morality is very great, for the school is the most effectively organized agency for dealing with the immediate problem. Neither the home nor the church exercises such effectual control in shaping the ideals and conduct of youth during the period of secondary education. Both the opportunity and the responsibility are greatly enhanced by the rapid increase in attendance upon the public high school, in which more than two million pupils are now enrolled. This opportunity implies a corresponding responsibility.

**Aims of moral training.** Moral living rests upon an individual's ability to distinguish clearly between right and wrong and the will to do the right. Granting the need for moral training and the responsibility of the school in this field, the school's task is to secure the definition and acceptance of standards, to make these dynamic in the form of attitudes, and to see that both standards and attitudes are carried over into habits of right conduct. The classroom, the daily routine, the social activities, in fact, every phase of the school's life, furnish abundant opportunities for the definition of standards and the forming of habits of response. Here, as in other phases of school work, we have fallen short of reasonable expectation because of the indefiniteness of our aims. Moral character is attainable only as we divide it into its elements and make each of these an end to be attained. Truthfulness under all circumstances, regard for property rights either of an individual or of a group, good sportsman-



ship, respect for constituted authority, the responsibility of a leader toward the group and of the group toward their leader and fellow members, loyalty to the school and its various organizations,— these are some of the elements (each one of which requires detailed analysis and definition) which make up moral character in terms of the complex life of the school.

**Methods of moral training.** It is important to distinguish between instruction *about* morals and training *in* moral conduct. Each has its place: the one to furnish the intellectual basis for the distinction between right and wrong, the other to provide opportunities for choice and for the development of habits of conduct. Neither is sufficient in itself. An intellectual assent to the items of the decalogue does not insure the moral quality of one's acts. A general purpose to do the right and even definite habits of right response in certain specific situations cannot take the place of more fundamental principles on which to base one's decisions in the complex relationships of life.

With respect to the direct or formal teaching of ethics or morals the danger is that instruction will become dissociated from actual life situations. The perfunctory character of much of the instruction in ethics or religion in the schools of those countries in which the curriculum makes provision for such instruction is commented upon by those who have observed the work. Such formal instruction is of doubtful value in the light of our present psychology unless it is accompanied by conscious application to the situations which confront the pupils in their actual lives. On quite as dubious a basis rests the claim of the moral values of mathematics and science as teaching the inevitableness of truth and law, of literature and history as setting up ideals of conduct through the study of worthy examples, of foreign language through the development of habits of close observation and careful discrimination. While it is not denied that many teachers

make valuable contributions to the formation of ideals and attitudes through the material used in various subjects and more especially through the influence of their own character and example, there is little ground for the claim that the formal material which comprises the greater part of the curriculum affects the moral life of the pupil. The socialized recitation and the project method, in so far as they set up situations and deal with material of vital social import, may make valuable contributions to the definitions of standards and to the formation of desirable habits of social response. This is particularly true in the field of the social sciences, as they are coming more and more to deal with the common relationships of the life of the present day.

However valuable the direct teaching of ethics may be made by well-qualified teachers in laying the foundation for intelligent choice in matters of moral significance, we are not justified in expecting from this method alone adequate results in the development of ethical character among high-school pupils. The material available for such instruction and the limited number of suitable teachers utterly preclude such expectations. The problem can be met and solved only when it is recognized as important enough to demand the attention and coöperation of the entire teaching staff. The first step in working out a plan for moral training in any school should be a detailed survey of the situation as it exists. It is best not to attempt a survey of the entire field of morals, but to begin with a limited field, such as honesty or property rights. In such a survey not only the faculty but the pupils should have a share. It is usually desirable to place this work in the hands of a committee of the faculty in coöperation with representatives of the student council or other organizations of the school. This investigation should be followed by a statement of aims and should finally emerge in a set of standards, as simple and definite as possible, which should be accepted by the school, both teachers

and pupils. The final and most important step is to secure compliance with these standards. The success of whatever machinery is set up to secure this compliance will depend upon the extent to which responsibility is distributed and felt by individual teachers and pupils. A good illustration of the procedure in formulating standards and securing their acceptance is the manual of manners of the South Philadelphia High School for Girls described on pages 135-137.

As an example of a survey of honesty in school work conducted in the University of Chicago High School under the author's direction, the following findings were reported:

1. The type of dishonesty most prevalent is in the preparation of assigned work outside the classroom. The number of cases specifically reported by individual teachers for a semester period ranges from none to twelve; some report "very common." The forms which this takes vary somewhat according to the differing material required in different subjects. They include (1) copying written work, (2) use of translations, (3) writing translations between the lines in foreign-language texts.

2. There is considerable dishonesty in recitations, differing largely according to the character of the work and the method of the instructor. This falls under the following heads: (1) prompting pupil reciting, (2) looking in books, (3) using written or printed matter brought to class, (4) concealing loss or damage to tools or laboratory material.

3. There is very little, if any, dishonesty in semester examinations.

4. There is some dishonesty in class tests in the following forms: (1) copying from papers of neighbors, (2) giving or receiving help, (3) using written or printed matter prepared in advance for the purpose.

5. The practice of making evasive or false excuses for such delinquencies as absence, tardiness, and lack of preparation is very common.

6. The methods of dealing with cases occurring under these heads differ widely and include the following:

- a. For dishonesty in the preparation of work, in recitation, and in written tests: (1) private talk with offender, (2) open reprimand in presence of class, (3) mark of zero for work involved, (4) repetition of work, (5) dismissal from room, (6) permanent dismissal from class.

- b. For evasive or false excuses: (1) report to office, (2) private talk, (3) discussion of case in presence of class, (4) exclusion from class.

Following this survey of existing conditions the following report was accepted and made the basis of constructive dealing with the problem of dishonesty.

#### RECOMMENDATIONS REGARDING TREATMENT OF DISHONESTY

The committee regards it of more fundamental importance to prevent dishonest practices than to punish offenders. To this end it recommends, with reference to the preparation of work:

1. That work to be prepared out of class do not exceed in amount and difficulty that which a pupil of average ability can do in a reasonable time.

2. That greater insistence be placed on the honest preparation of assigned work than on the presentation of any given amount.

3. That the pupil know that the preparation of written work is not a mere formal requirement, but that some use is made of the material presented.

4. That greater emphasis be placed on understanding and knowing the lesson than on written work prepared outside the classroom, and that marks be given on this basis.

5. That pupils who are unprepared on the work of the day be expected to report this fact to the instructor before the beginning of the recitation, and, if there be reasonable cause, that they be given the privilege of making up the deficiency; and that failure to report in this manner be treated as a serious offense.

6. That pupils be advised and encouraged to work independently in the preparation of their assignments.

With reference to the conduct of recitations and tests the committee recommends:

That teachers see that opportunities for cheating are removed so far as possible; to this end (1) that all books be closed and papers be laid aside whenever required; (2) that no prompting be allowed; (3) that pupils be not allowed to look upon each other's papers in tests and that so far as possible they be so placed that this may be impossible; (4) that pupils in examinations and tests be closely observed and any indications of cheating be promptly checked.

With reference to routine discipline the committee recommends:

1. That in their relations with pupils, teachers set for themselves the same standards of promptness, exactness, and directness that they require of their pupils.

2. That they insist upon prompt compliance with the requirements regarding absence and tardiness.

3. That the statement of a pupil be accepted as true unless there be good reason to think otherwise.

4. That the use of sarcasm be avoided.

Regarding the treatment of offenders the committee recommends:

1. That dishonesty in any form shall not be overlooked and in case of the same pupil must not be repeated.

2. That the method to be employed vary with the nature of the offense and the previous record of the pupil. Such methods would include one or more of the following: (1) private talk, (2) open rebuke, (3) repetition of work, (4) denial of credit, (5) temporary or permanent dismissal from class, (6) suspension or expulsion from school.

3. That cases of cheating in tests and repeated dishonesty in any form be reported in writing to the office, where a record of such cases shall be kept.

Such definitions of standards, based on a survey of actual conditions and accepted by the entire school, both teachers and pupils, may serve as a basis for intelligent choice and for training in habits of conduct which may be expected to carry over into similar relations in mature life outside the school. Similar surveys and standards may be made in numerous other phases of the life of the school, such as good sportsmanship, regard for property rights, responsibility toward the school and its various organizations, cleanness of speech and life. Every school has its traditions, more often vaguely felt than clearly defined, which exert a powerful influence upon its life and leave a lasting stamp upon its members. A clear statement of these, with a critical evaluation of their effect, may lead to the rejection of the undesirable and the addition or substitution of others more worthy.

In securing the definition and acceptance of standards the pupils must have a large share if permanent and far-reaching results are to be expected. The student council is the natural group through which to work. The Captains and Managers' Club mentioned in the previous chapter did much in the development of standards in the important field of athletics. In the weekly meetings of a discussion club the author found for many years an opportunity for developing among boys clear



thinking about their moral problems and for setting up standards which became effective to a large degree throughout the school. An outgrowth of this discussion club is the author's book "The Problems of Boyhood: A Course in Ethics for Boys of High-School Age," which contains much of the material used in the informal discussions of the club. These standards should have to do with matters vital to high-school pupils and should be expressed in terms which have real meaning to them. For this reason it is the more important that they should have their origin and receive their statement from the pupils themselves. "Tell the truth and take your medicine," "No swiping or borrowing without the owner's consent," "Cut out smut," bear unmistakable evidence of their source and are far more effective for their purpose than if stated formally.

The definition of standards is but the first step, though an important one. Their promulgation and acceptance must follow through such avenues as the assembly, the school paper, the various clubs, classroom discussion, etc. They may be made projects involving the activity of the entire school in which the classes in English and the social studies will find interest and profit and for which the art classes may contribute posters for purposes of publicity. It is wise not to attempt too much at one time, but to select and concentrate attention upon some phase of conduct which seems in greatest need of improvement or which is likely to enlist the interest and support of the largest number.

But more important than the definition and general acceptance of standards is their application to the actual conduct of the individual members of the school. Here lies the opportunity for training in habits of proper response to situations which involve moral choice. In no aspect of school administration is the inspiring leadership of the principal more necessary. He must have first of all a firm conviction of the importance of moral training as an educational aim. He

must secure the active coöperation of each member of his staff in carrying out a program of moral training. Such a program does not fall within the scope of any single department, but extends to every phase of the work of the school. The varied activities outside the classroom offer the most fruitful field of all, and here the principal must develop a feeling of responsibility on the part of the pupils themselves for maintaining the standards which they have helped to frame.

**The case method.** Standards of conduct become vital only when applied to specific situations. Occasions for application of the *case method of moral training*, as it may be called, may involve a single individual, an athletic team or similar group, or even the entire school. Every day furnishes many opportunities for the application of standards of conduct in actual cases. Some of these are relatively unimportant; others may be made the occasion for establishing precedents of far-reaching importance. There is need of clear thinking about relative values. No situation involving dishonesty is too trivial to be overlooked. Insistent pressure should be applied at all times to secure compliance with accepted standards and to fix these more firmly in the minds and habits of conduct of the members of the school. Good judgment and a fine sense of dramatic values enable a principal or teacher to make the best use of situations as they arise.

Specific instances will illustrate the application of the case method.

*Personal responsibility.* To make effective the idea that school office is a school trust, all pupils holding the positions of president, vice president, and secretary of the clubs in one school were required, at the suggestion of the student council, to attend a special class in parliamentary procedure. This class, which was conducted by a member of the faculty, held ten meetings, after school, and at its close was given a rigid examination. Those who failed to meet the require-

ments of the course relinquished their offices. A similar class was held for treasurers, in which uniform methods of accounting were taught. All treasurers' accounts were audited and published each semester in the school paper. The same school has for many years published a daily paper in which the material has not been subject to close faculty censorship. By holding the editors responsible for the truthfulness and good tone of the material published, the paper has maintained a high quality of excellence.

*Property rights.* The case method of training in regard to property rights is illustrated in the following incidents:

The physical director had sent a student manager to procure some articles of equipment for the football team. He returned with one more than was ordered. On being asked how this happened he said, with apparent satisfaction at his managerial efficiency, that he noticed that the clerk had given him one more than he had paid for, but he had not thought it necessary to call attention to the error. He was much surprised when he was told that he must return the extra article at once, protesting that it was not his fault but that of the clerk; but he finally did as he was directed. From this time on it was a matter of common agreement that "the fellows have to be on the square with the Doctor all the time."

Reference has already been made to an incident in another school in which an important member of the baseball team, who had "swiped" a baseball from an opposing team, was required by action of the student council to turn in his uniform for a period of one week and to haul cinders for the repair of the running-track during the practice of the team.

At every suitable opportunity specific cases should be brought to the attention of the entire school.

The following correspondence, which was read to the school at assembly, illustrates the possibilities of making a vivid impression upon all the members of a school in connection with standards of conduct.

Chicago, Illinois, March 10, 1915

Gentlemen:

Some weeks ago a basketball team from the University High School took the trip to Harvey on one of your suburban trains, and during the trip they broke two panes of glass. While no train official interfered or spoke to them about it, the matter has come to my attention, and I have had the boys hand me the inclosed amount,—one dollar,—which I found upon telephone inquiry to be the value of the property destroyed. It is the practice of the school to insist upon full and complete responsibility of its pupils when they are representing the school in any capacity, and we do not wish them to feel that they can destroy property belonging either to a person or a corporation without restoring it fully. Will you kindly send me receipt for the inclosed amount to complete the transaction?

Yours very truly,  
Franklin W. Johnson

Illinois Central R.R. Co.  
Chicago, Illinois.

Chicago, March 15, 1915

Mr. Franklin W. Johnson, Principal  
University High School  
Chicago, Illinois

Dear Sir:

In addition to the formal receipt for \$1 which we sent you March 12, and which covered damage to one of our suburban cars by your basketball team, allow me to thank you in this manner for the very creditable act in making restitution for damage accidentally done, I am sure.

We feel the more grateful from the fact that the payment was made without solicitation, and that it was a voluntary proceeding on your part. How much better and happier everyone would be if such acts were performed by the people generally.

With kindest regards and success to you and your boys, I remain,

Yours very truly,  
Otto G. Nan  
Local Treasurer

**Good sportsmanship.** Because of the unique position which they hold in the interest of the school, athletic sports offer the greatest opportunity, as well as the greatest need, for clear definition and resolute enforcement of standards. The prin-

principal's responsibility here is clear, but his task is often made difficult by the open or secret efforts of the alumni or other interested members of the community to maintain winning teams. The employment of persons as coaches who are not responsible members of the teaching staff is often an insuperable barrier to good sportsmanship. On the other hand, the physical director or coach who sees in athletic games something more important than victories and who insists upon the highest standards of sportsmanship is a most powerful factor in moral training. Not even the principal himself can do so much to clear the moral vision of the boys as the physical director, who meets them daily in relations in which their real inner lives and motives are most clearly revealed. In a previous paragraph we have had an example of the incidental training which such a man may give. It is because the occasions for moral training do not have to be dragged in, but arise naturally in the activities in which the boys and the physical director work together with joyous enthusiasm, that his moral influence is more potent than that of any other school officer.

An insistence upon the practice of good sportsmanship, year after year, develops traditions of priceless value to a school. Happily many schools are getting such traditions. On the day following a great track meet a well-known school voluntarily sent back the trophy which they had won, because after the meet the principal discovered that one of their point winners had been ineligible by reason of a technicality unknown to any member of the team. All the trophies proudly displayed on the walls of their gymnasium have not brought such honor to the school as this one which might have been retained had the moral standards of the school been less high. In another school, after a victory in the annual football game with its closest rival it was similarly discovered that a player on its own team had been ineligible. A letter was promptly sent to the opposing school, stating the fact and relinquishing



the victory, and the rival school acknowledged this act of good sportsmanship but declined to accept the credit for victory.

*Regard for truth.* From the frequently occurring form of petty evasion to the outstanding and deliberate falsehood, untruthfulness has its most common source in unwillingness to meet the consequences of one's acts. An unvarying program, which overlooks no case of untruthfulness as trivial but brands a lie as an act of cowardice, will make the slogan "Tell the truth and take your medicine" effective throughout a school. A boy hates above anything else the implication that he shows a "yellow streak." The quality which he most admires in another and to which he will respond most readily is being "on the square." To develop habits of truthfulness in pupils it is absolutely necessary that the principal and teachers act with complete sincerity and straightforwardness. There is no place for "bluffing" or pretense. If a principal attempts to take advantage of his superior position and, by pretending to have a knowledge which he does not possess, to secure a confession from a pupil, he is met upon his own level when the pupil tries to defend himself by a lie. Straightforwardness on the part of a principal will usually be met by a similar response from the pupil. The writer once had reason to think that two boys had been guilty of a "rough-house" escapade. His conviction was based on the general reputation of the boys and on certain rather flimsy circumstantial evidence. Calling them to his office separately, he told each frankly the reasons he had for thinking him guilty, saying that these were the only reasons and that he would accept his statement as true. Each boy readily confessed. Had a less direct method been employed, the boys would probably have lied, and the principal would have found himself in the embarrassing position, so familiar to school officers, of being convinced of the boys' guilt but baffled in the attempt to secure a confession of it; and the boys would have

gone from the office with less respect for their principal whom they had beaten at a game of his own choosing.

However well standards of truthfulness may be established in a school, it is possible that by clumsy handling of a situation a pupil may be startled into the telling of a lie. A sudden or unexpected question may cause the pupil impulsively to revert to an old habit or to respond to the instinct of self-preservation and try to defend himself by a falsehood. It should be an occasion for searching of heart on the part of a principal when he finds that a pupil has lied to him. Such a calamity he should have been able to avert.

**Cleanness of speech.** Those who are familiar with boy life know how prevalent is the tendency to obscene speech and recognize the unwholesome moral effect which it produces. This insidious habit is difficult to eradicate. It is due in large measure to thoughtless imitation on the part of boys who have no knowledge of its evil consequences. By bringing it into the light through group discussion it is possible to create a strong sentiment which will greatly reduce, if not eliminate, the practice. In some schools, "anti-smut" clubs have been voluntarily formed which have become the center of effective propaganda. A few days after the discussion club had taken up the subject of clean speech, a group of boys placed before the author a document signed by thirty boys, agreeing together to refrain from obscene language and to hear no such language from any member of the school without rebuke. Shortly afterward a husky athlete was observed with a blackened eye, received at the hand of a militant signer of the document whose rebuke had not met with prompt compliance. This dramatic method of enforcing standards, with its visible results, made a profound impression throughout the school, which lasted long after the color had faded from the injured member.

**Summary.** The development of ethical character has always been recognized as an important aim of education.

However, a casual survey of the situation as it exists in some secondary schools reveals a general lack of definite moral standards and of a well-considered program for moral training. In so far as the school reflects the moral tone of the community, it cannot be held wholly, or even in large part, responsible for the situation. It cannot, however, fail to recognize its opportunity and its responsibility for training our future citizens in this field. The methods to be employed must have regard for both the intellect and the will. The intelligent exercise of moral judgment must be based upon clearly defined standards; an individual's conduct in a given situation depends upon his choice between two or more possible courses of action. The intellectual basis for moral judgment may come from instruction in various subjects of the curriculum (particularly the social studies), from direct instruction in ethics or morals, and through the more informal social activities of the school. Clearness of definition is here essential to effective moral instruction. Ethical standards must be reënforced by the emotions if they are to result in right choices. The natural idealism of youth, unspoiled by the cynicism of age, is a great resource. The boy's admiration for the "square deal" and for the courageous deed and his sense of loyalty to his class, club, or school are powerful incentives to his choice when he sees the relation of his conduct to these ideals. The cultivation of school spirit or morale has its legitimate aim in this reënforcement of moral standards. The final and most important step looks to the setting up of habits of conduct which shall persist in mature life. The opportunities for this are on every hand — in the formal contacts of pupils with each other and their teachers, in the routine life of the school, and in the more informal relationships of the extra-classroom activities. Wherever social contacts occur, there should be patient and uniform insistence upon compliance with accepted standards until this becomes habitual.

For such a program of moral instruction and training the principal is directly responsible. There is no department or person to whom he may delegate it. He must recognize the need of such a program, take the directing part in its formulation, and secure the approval and coöperation of all the members of his staff in its operation.

### PROBLEMS AND QUESTIONS

1. Describe the system of moral instruction used in the schools of some other country and contrast it with our own.

2. Cite illustrations indicating the present tendencies in regard to religious instruction in the public schools.

3. Give instances, if any have come under your observation, of low standards in high school with respect to (1) truthfulness, (2) property rights, (3) sportsmanship. Suggest suitable treatment of each case.

4. Outline in detail a plan for a survey of one of the phases of the life of a high school given under 3.

5. Should pupils be asked to "snitch", on each other? What use should the principal make of information given by one pupil about another?

6. A teacher twenty-three years of age, without previous experience, submits to the principal the semester examination papers of two second-year boys which bear unmistakable evidence that one has received assistance from the other in writing the examination. The boys do not know that their wrongdoing has been discovered. State in detail the action you would take and the considerations prompting it.

7. At an assembly of a school of five hundred pupils a lawyer of the city talks for thirty-five minutes on the opportunities and qualifications of the legal profession. During the address two senior boys, one the captain of the football team, whisper most of the time. What would you, the principal, do?

8. To what extent is the school responsible for the moral conduct of pupils when they are not on school premises? Cite a specific case and tell what action you would take.

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## CHAPTER XI

### THE PRINCIPAL'S RELATIONS TO THE COMMUNITY

The relation of the principal to the community was included in the analysis of his responsibilities in Chapter I. His first responsibility is of course within the school, and to its organization and direction he must primarily devote his energies. But he must not neglect the wider relationship which is involved in the conception of the school as a coöperative agency in which the teaching staff and the community are engaged in a common enterprise. His contacts will naturally be most frequent with the parents of his pupils, but they must extend beyond these.

**Contacts with parents.** In all schools there is a certain amount of routine contact between parents and the school. Reports of school work are sent to parents at fixed intervals. These will be discussed in a later chapter on blanks and forms. It may be said here that these reports should be more informative than those generally used and should give an idea of the pupil's achievement in relation to the group of which he is a part. In most schools parents seldom visit as individuals unless some unsatisfactory situation has arisen regarding a pupil's work or conduct. These interviews do not as a rule prove unpleasant, and should be invited by principals as a means of diagnosis, leading to a better understanding and an improvement of the conditions which are hindering a pupil's success. Acquaintance with the parents of a troublesome boy often reveals much which causes the principal to be more patient and sympathetic in dealing with his delinquencies. In some instances it is advisable to have both the parent and the pupil present at the interview in

order that there may be no misunderstanding in the minds of any of the persons concerned; in other cases it is much better to deal with pupils and parents separately. The good judgment of the principal must determine in a given case which method of procedure is likely to produce the better results. In the rare instances in which disagreeable consequences are likely to result, it is the part of wisdom to have another person present as a witness to what occurs at an interview. Principals have sometimes found themselves involved in serious predicament through failure to take this precaution. The author on one occasion had a clerk take a stenographic record of an interview from which it seemed possible that serious complications might arise. In the great majority of cases, however, parents are anxious to coöperate with the school in measures taken for their children's improvement, and in spirit they follow out the method of a more rigorous régime, belonging to a time now past, when a "thrashing" administered at school was followed by an application of the parental shingle in the woodshed at home.

It is highly desirable that personal relations with parents should not be confined to what may be called pathological cases. To the numerous reports of delinquencies which must go out from his office there should be added others, in the form of personal letters, expressing approval of special merit. These should be employed with discrimination and should be regarded as marks of special distinction, for it is unwise to give such commendation to pupils who have done less than their best. Pupils whose ability is not exceptional may well be commended for faithful work, and others whose conduct has been the subject of censure may receive this form of approval for evidences of marked improvement. Such indications of interest on the part of the principal are appreciated by both parents and pupils and contribute in no small degree to the general good will and tone of the school. Parents who have received such reports will often take occasion

to call at the school office, and while the resulting interview may be somewhat discursive and less to the point than those in which the parent has been summoned to discuss his child's shortcomings, it will serve as a helpful antidote for the pessimism and peevishness which principals are in danger of developing through dealing with the routine of administration.

Principals generally report that few parents visit the school voluntarily. Not infrequently the impression exists that such visits are not desired. This idea is disseminated by the pupils, who naturally feel that the presence of their parents at the school will be interpreted by their fellows as indicating that they themselves are under fire.

A method which will result in a considerable increase in the amount of office time which the principal will spend in interviews with parents may raise the question as to where he will find the necessary time in his already busy day. This, as well as other activities to be discussed later, will necessitate the omission of some of the tasks which he now performs or their delegation to clerks or other members of his teaching staff.

In personal interviews with parents the principal should combine firmness with tact. It is often easier to tell parents what is pleasant for them to hear than what they ought to know about their children. Parents, however, usually appreciate and respond to directness in statement, particularly if their experience with the principal or his general reputation in the community leave no doubt as to his sincerity. It is not always necessary or wise for the principal to tell the parent all he knows about a pupil. For example, it would seldom be expedient to tell a mother that her daughter's intelligence quotient placed her in the class of high-grade morons, although advice might be given and plans worked out for her further training in a manner quite consistent with the fact.

The rapid increase in urban population and the changed conditions of rural life have resulted in the transfer to the

school of many forms of training which were once provided for in the home. Among these are cooking, textile arts, and household economics for girls, manual training and agriculture for boys, and physical training for both. The high school is coming to assume responsibility for such organization and control of the social life of its pupils as the home can no longer undertake for lack of adequate facilities. The emphasis which recent statements of the aims of secondary education place upon ethical training indicates that the school is ready to share with the home and church in this important aspect of the pupil's education. In return the home is coming to recognize an added obligation to the school, to which it has delegated so much of what was once its own responsibility. A desire to coöperate helpfully with the school has resulted in the formation in many places of associations of parents which have aided greatly in promoting the effectiveness of the work of the school. Parents and teachers have here united in the relation of active partnership in a common enterprise.

**Parents' associations.** The extent to which such an association will prove beneficial to the school depends upon the clearness with which its proper functions are understood. These functions are mainly three:

1. *The discussion of subjects relating to school procedure.* The formal meetings offer an opportunity for the principal to present to the parents the aims of the school, the methods and purposes of discipline, the desirability of proposed changes in organization, the amount and method of home study, and similar topics. Various members of the teaching staff may discuss the relation of the work of their departments to the training of the pupils. Persons outside the school may be brought in to discuss educational topics, sometimes from the point of view of the school, sometimes from that of the professional or business man. The following is the actual program for a year's meetings of one association: recent changes in the

school curriculum, phases of moral education, physical training, fine and industrial arts, geography in the high school, the teaching of mathematics with student demonstration, the social activities of the school presented by pupils. Two meetings were given to demonstrations of work in actual progress: one to the different forms of shopwork and art work; the other to physical training, including class work in gymnastics and dancing and the various athletic games. Still another meeting, which proved of unusual interest, was given up to answers by school officers to questions previously submitted in writing, followed by free discussion by parents. The meeting of parents and teachers for the discussion of subjects relating to school procedure serves a most useful purpose in removing existing misapprehensions and in providing, from the supplementary standpoint of the home and the school, a better understanding of their common problem.

2. *The meeting of parents and teachers for social intercourse.*

The association to whose program reference has been made above gave an informal reception in the school garden to parents and teachers at the opening of the year, and later in the year another similar reception at the home of one of the parents. There was at the close of each meeting a social hour at which light refreshments were served. It was the custom also to have in the late spring a picnic supper in the school gardens attended by pupils, parents, and teachers, and in the evening after it a social gathering in the gymnasium and on the lighted school grounds, in which old and young enjoyed themselves with dancing and other forms of amusement. These opportunities for pleasant social intercourse of parents with one another and with the teachers of their children are invaluable in the development of mutual understanding and community interest in the school, which carry over into the relations of pupils and teachers to each other in the routine of school life.



3. *The promotion of plans for enlarging or improving the work or equipment of the school.* An association which confines itself to social gatherings and to a discussion of the current practices of the school is not likely to continue permanently, interesting to its members and may degenerate into an organization for tea-drinking or faultfinding, neither one of which would justify the expenditure of effort and the possibilities of irritation to the officers and teachers of the school. A permanently effective association must undertake a constructive policy for the improvement of the school. School boards and communities require enlightenment before they can be led to see the need for improvement and to provide the necessary funds. The parents' association gives an opportunity for presenting the needs of the school, first to the parents of the children, who are naturally most interested, and through them to the larger community and to the school board or the city government whose final action is necessary to secure the desired ends. Manual training and domestic science were thus introduced into the schools of a small Maine city as the result of a movement that began in the parents' association, which itself raised a considerable sum of money for the work, later supplemented by an appropriation from the school funds. This desirable result would not have been secured at the time, if at all, without the influence and efforts of the association. In one of the public high schools of Chicago a lunch room was secured in the same manner. The association through representative committees assumed the entire responsibility for its management, and a group of mothers in person attended daily to the serving of the meal. The association of parents of the Elementary and High schools of the department of education of the University of Chicago undertook the equipment of an extensive school playground, which has become a valuable part of the permanent equipment of the schools. The discussion of sex hygiene in the high-school section of the same association, followed by further considera-

tion of the subject by a committee of parents and teachers, led to the adoption of a well-considered plan for instruction through the departments of biology and physical education. The Father's Association of the Frankford High School, Philadelphia, is unique in point of numbers and of vigorous and sustained interest. Organized in 1912, when the school occupied a one-story building of six rooms, it now has a membership of fourteen hundred, of whom an average of one thousand attend the monthly meetings. Largely through the influence of this organization the school has secured a beautiful building and a seven-acre athletic field, and a movement is under way to add a swimming-pool to the equipment. A scholarship committee has provided a scholarship fund through which meritorious students are enabled to complete their high-school courses or go on to higher institutions. This fund is on a permanent basis and will eventually reach the sum of \$40,000.

**Relations with the community at large.** The relations which the principal sustains with the parents, whether these be with individuals or with an association of the parents of the children of his school, are such as grow naturally out of the conception of the school as a coöperative agency. But this conception of the school is more inclusive and embraces the community as a whole. The principal must consider what are his opportunities and responsibilities for association with the social life of the larger community. For he owes it both to himself and to the school over which he presides to develop helpful social contacts in addition to those that come about through the formal administration of his school. A democratic society fixes no scale of social recognition to be accorded to various professions or occupations. In Germany the secondary-school teacher is given the same relative rating as the judge. In this country, at least in theory, each person occupies the social position to which his real worth entitles him. But there have come about through experience certain

rather definite conceptions of the social types represented by the different professions and occupations in which men are engaged. The teacher and the clergyman, perhaps because they have most to do with women and children, have been regarded as living apart from the real business of life. Their presence is sought at certain social functions to give an air of respectability or to add a sort of intellectual decoration, but on the whole there may be detected an air of condescension, not overmuch concealed, in the attitude of society toward the schoolmaster and the clergyman. Witness the surprised satisfaction, often accompanied with approving remarks, when the new principal lights a cigar in a group of business men. Such a one might even be invited on a fishing-trip. The acquisition of some of the minor vices may be attributed to the natural desire of the schoolmaster to be regarded as a real man among men.

Now that the work of the school is becoming more vitally connected with the activities in which mature society is engaged, it is incumbent upon the principal that he cease to live an isolated life and come into first-hand contact, as far as possible, with the constructive forces of the community. By this means also he will be better able to educate the public to that appreciation of the value of the school which is necessary to secure the support of the projects that he wishes to carry out for its further development. There are in every community numerous opportunities for securing desirable social contacts. Good judgment will dictate the proper course to pursue in any situation. The principal should not aspire to be a social success; he should not become a "joiner" to the neglect of his more important duties, which still lie within the school.

The church offers such an opportunity. It is not essential that the principal be a member of a church, though it is highly desirable; it is important that he be identified with the program for social improvement and civic righteousness

which is usually set up by the church. If his church does not set a high standard in this regard, he should lend his support for its improvement. Chambers of Commerce, Rotary Clubs, and other similar organizations furnish avenues for securing valuable acquaintance with men joined together for the discussion of projects for community betterment. The various fraternal societies also offer opportunities for desirable social contacts. The author in his earlier years joined one of these with the definite object of securing contact with a type of men with whom he had up to that time had little to do. If no other value was secured, the action seemed justified by the resulting feeling that he was no longer merely a schoolmaster, but had become identified with men who treated him as one of their own sort. It must be confessed, however, that he never got over a feeling of self-conscious embarrassment whenever on public occasions he assumed the regalia prescribed by the ritual of the order.

With respect to politics as such, good judgment suggests that the principal play a conservative part. This does not mean that he should be conservative in his political thinking, but that he should not be an overzealous partisan in expression. The principal who aspires to political office or to distinction as a party orator will eventually find his ambitions in this direction inconsistent with his success as a schoolman. It may sometimes happen that an issue in local politics is closely related to the schools, or that some question of moral significance is involved. In such a case the principal should take his stand, even though the result of such action may ultimately involve the loss of his position.

**Publicity.** The principal should not seek publicity for the sake of his own personal advancement. The self-advertising man, who is fond of seeing his name in the columns of the local press, will come sooner or later to be estimated by his associates and the general public at his own worth. Such public recognition as he deserves will be accorded the prin-

cial in proportion as he meets his manifold responsibilities to the school and the community which he serves.

This does not preclude the desirability of general school publicity, which is being used increasingly by successful principals for educating the community and for securing public support. Some principals issue frequent bulletins to parents regarding the policies and practices of their schools. This is quite consistent with the conception of the school as a coöperative agency and may contribute greatly to good will growing out of common understanding. The public press affords a valuable avenue of publicity through which the larger community may be reached. Editors report, however, that articles prepared by teachers are not often good newspaper copy. The principal should cultivate an acceptable newspaper style, remembering that his matter must be read if it is to serve its purpose. He should secure the acquaintance and confidence of representatives of the local press. Without this he is likely to have many uncomfortable experiences. Sometimes papers turn over a column to the high school for its own use. A school that is carefully organized for publicity finds in this a means of keeping itself regularly before the public as well as an opportunity for training pupils in journalism.

Proposed bond issues for new buildings or other purposes afford the occasion for special publicity campaigns in which the principal may have an important part. A considerable literature is available describing in great detail successful campaigns of this sort with which the principal should acquaint himself, especially the books by Reynolds and by Alexander and Theisen included in the references given at the end of this chapter.

**Summary.** The success of the principal will depend in no small degree upon his ability to interest the community in the development of his school. He will accomplish this by making the very best possible use of the facilities provided



and by keeping the public informed of the work and needs of the school. To this end he will use every opportunity for contact with individuals and groups. He will see to it that the parents' association is a constructive force not only for disseminating information and securing social contacts between teachers and parents but also for providing substantial support to the school. He will not allow the association to get out of hand, though he will occupy no official position of leadership in it. He will relate himself to the social life of the community as a good citizen interested in its general welfare. He will make use of such agencies of publicity as are at hand for the promotion of his school, but not of himself. In all his community relationships he should think of the school as a coöperative enterprise in which teachers and parents are engaged in securing certain desirable ends for children, and he should take every possible means to bring about this conception on the part of the entire community.

### PROBLEMS AND QUESTIONS

1. Have you ever known of a Parents' Association that was a hindrance rather than an aid to the principal? If so, what was the reason?
2. What should be the principal's relation to the Parents' Association?
3. List ten things that a Parents' Association might do for a school.
4. Should the principal be accessible to parents at any time in the day? Consider the practice of people regarded as professional, such as dentists and lawyers.
5. What committees of a Parents' Association might be serviceable to the school?
6. It has been the practice of a successful principal of a boys' school each year to invite the fathers to a meeting at which they are asked to find fault with the school. What are some of the possible advantages and dangers involved?
7. How can the principal secure the attendance of his teachers at meetings of the Parents' Association?
8. The scene is laid in a Middle-Western town of ten thousand population, the center of a good farming area, with two rather small industrial

plants. The high-school building is twenty years old, inadequately equipped to meet the modern curriculum requirements, and there is no playground except a poor baseball diamond on a large vacant lot close by. The community has shown little interest in the school except by a growing tendency to criticize its inefficiency during the administration of your predecessor, who held the position for the past ten years by reason of family connection with the chairman of the school board. After a heated campaign a new board had been elected, although the chairman of the old board had been defeated by a small majority. You are elected to the principalship in June without previous acquaintance with the community. Only two of the old teachers are reelected. In what ways would you undertake to secure the coöperation of the community in the improvement of the school?

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## CHAPTER XII

### THE SCHOOL PLANT

The famous saying regarding Mark Hopkins on one end of a log and a student on the other gives a vivid, if not an exaggerated, picture of the relative importance of the teacher and material equipment in the educative process. However, no one will doubt that buildings and grounds with their equipment are a very important adjunct to the attainment of the aims of instruction. The principal's responsibility for the school plant and its equipment is very definite, though the extent of this responsibility and the manner in which he will meet it vary greatly in different communities.

**The principal and new-building projects.** For most principals the problem has to do with a school plant as he finds it already in operation. However, with the unprecedented growth of the high school and the necessary building of new plants or the enlargement of old ones, it is necessary for the principal to understand what are his opportunity and responsibility with reference to new-building projects. While the responsibility in this matter generally rests with the superintendent, the principal will often be called upon to give assistance and, in smaller communities, may even be the prime mover in the enterprise.

A brief statement of the essentials of a wise building policy may be of value to the principal, even though he may not be directly concerned with its execution. Such a policy will consider not only the present or even immediate future needs but, in a growing community, will look to the more remote future. The increase in population and its locational distribution and the present and probable future facilities of trans-

portation should be carefully studied. Suitable building-lots should be secured before the ground is occupied or becomes too valuable. The plan should be based upon a definite policy regarding junior and senior high schools and should take account of the relation of these schools to the entire city and to each other. In the smaller cities the plan may involve no more than the erection of a junior-high-school building near the present school, with the addition of grounds necessary to meet the increased demands of the two schools; it may even require only an enlargement of the present building.

Whatever the extent of the project, it is necessary to interest the community and convince them of its need. Statistics of expenditures for school buildings show the willingness of citizens in every part of the country to provide generously for the schools whenever they are convinced that needs exist. Building programs involving millions of dollars are in progress in many cities, and smaller cities are carrying out projects relatively as large. In securing financial support through helpful publicity the school plays an important part. Here the principal has a large responsibility. By linking the work of the school with the life of the community, by keeping the community informed of the aims and achievements of the school, by using the opportunities for social contacts with individuals and groups, by employing the local press for purposes of publicity, the principal may make the community responsive to the needs of his school. In actual campaigns for bond issues for building purposes, the entire school may be effectively mobilized for publicity. Alexander and Theisen, in "Publicity Campaigns for Better School Support," have described with great detail the methods of publicity thus employed with excellent results in a number of cities.

**Standards for buildings and grounds.** Within recent years school administrators and architects have devoted much attention to the scientific planning and construction of school build-

ings. The result has been that the type of building erected as a monument to the local pride of a community or of a school board has given place to one whose architectural form and internal arrangement are adapted to the administrative and instructional needs of the school. Standards have been set up covering a great variety of detail, and regulations have been enacted in many states for their enforcement. A chart of the regulations governing schoolhouse construction, compiled by Frank I. Cooper and published in *School Life* in 1921, shows a total of 1147 regulations, including 62 specific items distributed as follows: control 4, sites 2, planning 15, construction 15, fire protection 10, heating and ventilating 6, sanitation 7, equipment 3. Only three states, Arkansas, Mississippi, and Missouri, had no such regulations, whereas Montana was represented with 60 items.

A number of score cards for school buildings are available, among which the Strayer-Engelhardt Score Card for High-School Buildings is the best known. This will be found very useful either for the purpose of judging existing buildings and grounds or of rating the plans of proposed buildings.

School-building architects and educational administrators have collaborated in the preparation of checking lists covering every detail in the planning and construction of school buildings. They have also prepared information blanks and standardized forms dealing with the relation between school authorities, architects, and contractors to secure the greatest possible utility in school buildings. The reader is referred to the Strayer, Engelhardt and Hart Schoolhousing Series in the bibliography at the end of this chapter.

**Important considerations in the planning and maintenance of the school plant.** The important considerations in the planning and maintenance of the school plant may be grouped under three heads: (1) health, (2) serviceability, (3) æsthetic qualities.



1. *Health.* In the standards for school buildings health is the most important consideration. In addition to the factor of availability, the location and size of the site should be determined with a view to the effect of its environment upon health and to the nature of the soil and the ease of securing suitable drainage. That a parcel of ground is unoccupied and large enough for a school building seems to have been the basis for selection of many school sites. An average of two hundred square feet per pupil up to a total of ten acres represents a standard none too high. This standard should not be applied on the basis of present needs alone and should provide a minimum of three acres for the smaller schools. The maximum standard of ten acres is now found in many modern school plants and is even exceeded in some.

The form and orientation of the building and the amount and arrangement of window space are determined largely with a view to securing the most suitable illumination. The most desirable forms for this purpose are described as T, E, L, H, and U types from their resemblance to these letters. These forms or various adaptations of them have resulted in many instances in buildings combining serviceability and architectural beauty to a very high degree.

Many standards are employed looking to protection from fire hazards and other accidents. These deal with doors, stairways, fire escapes, sprinklers, and other safety apparatus, as well as with the material and general structure used to make buildings fireproof. In this connection also are standards dealing with electric wiring and heating systems.

Standards for systems of ventilation, heating, and artificial lighting have to do with the amounts and methods of distribution of the air supply, with its quality as to temperature and humidity, and with the amount of light and methods of securing necessary artificial illumination. Other standards deal with the water supply for drinking and bathing, the sanitary quality of the toilet facilities, and the methods of cleaning.

2. *Serviceability*. Next to health, and in many respects closely related to it, serviceability should be considered in the construction and equipment of a school building. A clear conception of the relation of all the activities of the school to the main objectives set up and to each other is here necessary.

Rooms for general purposes should be located with consideration for their availability and the extent to which they are used. The assembly hall should be large enough, if possible, to seat the entire school and should be so situated that the pupils may go and come with the least possible confusion and waste of time. Study halls, either for groups or for the entire school, should be arranged on the same principle. The location of the library in a central position in proximity to the study hall is discussed in another chapter. The gymnasium, with accompanying locker and bathing accommodations, is most often placed in the basement. Provided there is sufficient provision for lighting, this is a good arrangement, as it facilitates movement to and from the outdoor playgrounds. In connection with the gymnasium there should be suitable conveniences for physical and medical examinations and for emergency treatment in case of accident. The school nurse, if there be one, should have her office here. The lunch room is also frequently placed in the basement, though there is little justification for this except that it is used for only a short portion of the day and for that reason is given space less desirable for other purposes. In any case the rooms for cooking should be near the lunch room. The location and width of the corridors should be determined by their use for easy passing to and fro in the ordinary routine of the school and in the emergency situations that may arise.

The general administrative offices should be centrally located. Accessibility to the outside is of much less importance than accessibility to the activities going on within the school. For this reason the office may best be placed upon the second floor, though if the basement is much used the street floor is

often nearer the center of activity. There should be an inner and an outer room, the former serving as a reception room for visitors and for handling the ordinary routine. Here the principal's secretary should have her desk and, as in the case of any executive officer, should as far as possible stop the flow of routine from passing through the inner door. In the larger school the secretary and clerks should work behind a rail; in the smaller school, in which the principal has no clerk, he may be assisted to a considerable degree by competent pupils. The inner office should always have two doors, by one of which the principal may dismiss any person or may himself go out or in without passing through the outer office.

Classrooms, laboratories, and shops should be so arranged that those most used will be near the center of the building and those least used will be in the more remote parts. On this basis the rooms for English should be centrally located, near the study hall and library; the science laboratories, which often accommodate a smaller number of pupils and are occupied by the same group for longer periods, may be placed farther away. In this connection it should be said that the practice of providing both lecture rooms and laboratories is giving place to the use of the same room for both recitation and laboratory work, thus avoiding considerable waste in space and improving instruction by giving up the arbitrary distinction between recitation and laboratory work and allowing application to come at any appropriate time in the teaching process. Classrooms for the same or closely allied subjects should be grouped together to facilitate the use of material for which there is a common need. Shops should usually be placed in the basement because of the noise arising from their use, the greater ease in handling the material used, and the easier transmission of power to the machines.

In schools employing twenty or more teachers there should be departmental offices near the classrooms provided for each subject. These should contain one or more desks, shelves,

filing-cases, and cabinets for the use of teachers of the department when they are free from the duties of teaching. It is literally true that in some schools the teacher has no privacy, not even a place to hang his hat. It is also desirable that general rooms be provided for the men and women teachers for rest or recreation, in case there is need or time for either during their busy days.

In general it may be said that school buildings do not provide enough closet or storeroom space for classroom, laboratory, and general supplies. Much waste of teachers' and janitors' time and of material may be saved by careful planning and abundant provision of storage facilities. A much more liberal supply of filing-cases and cabinets would usually add to the attractiveness of schoolrooms and to the effectiveness of school work.

Toilet rooms should be provided in abundance, located inconspicuously, and kept with scrupulous attention to hygiene, both physical and moral. Those for boys and for girls should not be in proximity to each other.

3. *Æsthetic qualities.* The educative value of beautiful surroundings should be considered in the planning, equipment, and care of the school plant. The setting and form of the building should be determined with regard to their æsthetic effect. Except in congested cities the building should not be more than three stories high, including the basement, which should be mostly above the ground level. The material employed in construction should also be chosen for its pleasing effect. Excessive and costly ornamentation is unjustified and is not necessary to secure the desired result. The grounds should be laid out appropriately with trees and shrubs.

The main entrance should open into a spacious foyer, in which, as well as in the main corridors, there should be spaces suitable for statuary. The walls of these also should have well-lighted spaces for pictures. Such decorations should be expected to accumulate from year to year through gifts

from individuals and classes, as well as from a judicious appropriation of school funds. Here also the school trophies may be displayed.

The walls of corridors and classrooms should be tinted to produce a quiet, harmonious effect. The standard color scheme suggested by Strayer and Engelhardt is as follows: "Walls light buff or very light green or gray; ceiling white or extremely light cream; dado slightly darker than walls; woodwork, furniture, and shades to harmonize in tone; dull finish."

**Maintenance of plant.** Relatively few principals are confronted with the problem of building and equipping a new plant, but all are responsible for the maintenance of a plant, new or old.

A table of the comparative costs of administration, supervision and instruction, and operation and maintenance in twenty-one cities is given in the survey of the St. Louis schools. The average percentages of total costs are as follows: administration, 4 per cent; supervision and instruction, 80 per cent; operation and maintenance of plant, 16 per cent. The wide variations in these items in the cities represented and the great differences in conditions between large cities and small communities make these percentages of little value for comparison. It is desirable that the principal should compute the percentage of costs of these items and if possible compare them with similar items in other schools of about the same size as his own. The important consideration is whether his plant is properly cared for at a reasonable cost.

**Janitor service.** There is common agreement that the janitor occupies a very important position, second only to that of the principal. One writer has said that "a good janitor is harder to replace than a good teacher and, in most cases, than a good principal." He is the custodian of property frequently valued at a million dollars. He sets the house-keeping standards of the school, which have much to do with



the efficiency of teachers and pupils. More than anyone else he is responsible for the physical environment, which is the most important factor in the health of the school community, and for protection from fire and other hazards. He also has much to do with the moral tone of the school, particularly with respect to toilets and basements and, to some extent, with respect to the conduct of pupils about the school grounds.

The chapter on the janitor in Cubberley's book "The Principal and His School" is unsurpassed in educational literature in the completeness and human character of its treatment. He says of the qualifications of the janitor:

If one could choose his janitor he would set up as standards such qualities as good moral character, cleanly personal habits and speech, reasonably good English, an interest in and a right attitude toward children, and a willingness to be useful and to learn. This last is more important than initial skill. A young man is usually better than an old man, and a married man than one who is single. The kind of work he has been engaged in before is often indicative of the type of janitor the person will make. The best three janitors the writer has known, two men and a woman, had previously been a carpenter, a pastor of a little church, and a nurse with inadequate preparation.

In the larger cities applicants are usually subjected to physical and mental examinations. In St. Louis these are conducted by the commissioner of buildings and two school men, one of whom is a principal. The general practice probably is to require no such examinations and to set no definite standards of fitness.

Bulletin No. 24, 1922, of the Bureau of Education contains the following table showing the source of the recommendation for the employment of janitors in 677 schools, from which it will be seen that the principal has little to do with the matter.

The bulletin of the Bureau of Education lists fifty cities, in all but one of which the salaries of janitors are higher

than those of elementary-school principals. Commissioner Claxton stated in 1919 that the average salaries of janitors was \$355 more per year than that of elementary and high-school teachers. Considering the importance of the position the janitor's salary is not too high.

TABLE IX. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THE EMPLOYMENT OF JANITORS

RECOMMENDED BY	NUMBER OF CASES
Superintendent of schools . . . . .	342
Building and grounds committee of board . . . . .	41
Superintendent of buildings, custodian, or head janitor . . . . .	41
Committee on janitors of board . . . . .	30
Principal . . . . .	19
Business manager . . . . .	16
Property committee of board . . . . .	12
Secretary or clerk of board . . . . .	11
Chief engineer . . . . .	4
Some member of board . . . . .	3
Political leaders . . . . .	1
Board acts as a whole without recommendation . . . . .	157
	<u>677</u>

As a general rule janitors have received before their appointment little or no training which would fit them for their work, and while they are in service they have no opportunity for instruction in the scientific principles underlying heating, lighting, and ventilation and in the sanitary care of school buildings. Less than 5 per cent of 1088 cities reporting to the Bureau attempt to give instruction of any kind to their school janitors. In St. Louis classes for janitors are held each Saturday, at which competent instructors discuss such subjects as the following: the chemistry and use of soaps; the effect of soap on varnish, paint, and woodwork; the chemistry and physical properties of varnish, paints, and pigments; methods of cleaning and treatment of floors; dusting; the nature and use of disinfectants; the chemistry and

properties of coal and other fuels; the principles of combustion and proper firing; the care of boilers; oils and lubricants; air conditions and the principles of ventilation.

The University of Wisconsin and the Iowa State College, Ames, Iowa, give extension courses for janitors. The latter issues a pamphlet used as a textbook for classes or for individual instruction by correspondence, with illustrated chapters on heat, coal and combustion, methods of firing, the heating plant, good and bad air, humidity, sweeping, cleaning, and ventilation.

**Cleaning school buildings.** From the point of view of sanitation the most important function of the janitor is keeping the building clean. This has to do mainly with the sweeping and care of floors. The end sought should be to remove all dirt without spreading it about in the form of dust. In spite of frequent unfavorable reports, the vacuum cleaner is the best means to secure this: it removes not only the surface dirt but also dirt which has found its way into cracks, and it makes it unnecessary to dust the furniture and woodwork of the room after each cleaning.

In buildings in which it is impracticable to install a vacuum system other methods of sanitary cleaning may be employed. There are many sweeping-mixtures on the market which, if accompanied by careful sweeping, are reasonably effective. Damp sawdust, sand, and disinfectant make a good mixture and can be supplied at a small expense. Oiled brushes are sometimes used satisfactorily. The dry broom, without sweeping-mixture, is an abomination and a constant menace to health.

In the proper care of floors more is involved than the use of the vacuum cleaner or the broom. It is commonly assumed that the more frequently the floors are scrubbed with soap and water, the better; but this is not so. Too frequent washings injure the floors and make the daily cleaning more difficult. The report of the Bureau shows that in the largest number of schools, the floors are scrubbed twice each year;

in one this is done twice each week, in another every five years, and in thirty-two never. If a floor has once been properly cleaned and thereafter is well cared for, it will need to be scrubbed seldom if at all.

TABLE X. EFFECT ON BACTERIA OF OILING FLOORS

TIME OF EXPOSURE OF PLATES	COLONIES OF BACTERIA	
	Floors treated with oil	Floors not treated with oil
5 minutes in still air . . . . .	0	7
30 minutes in still air . . . . .	2	12
5 minutes during sweeping . . . . .	38	456
5 minutes just after sweeping . . . . .	11	79
5 minutes beginning 10 minutes after sweeping	6	62
5 minutes beginning 15 minutes after sweeping	1	31

The oiling of floors is becoming a common practice. Of the schools reporting to the Bureau, 83 per cent use this treatment. Nearly half make two applications a year. The objections sometimes made that this increases the fire hazard, soils clothing, and has an unpleasant odor are of little consequence when compared with the positive advantages in the preservation of the floors and the prevention of floating dust with accompanying bacteria. The hygienic value of this treatment is strikingly shown in the results of the tests of Dr. John Lambert given in Table X. He exposed gelatin plates under varying conditions and counted the colonies of bacteria which developed.

The prevention and removal of dust are probably the most important single factors in good school-housekeeping. In addition to the improved methods of cleaning and treating floors, care should be taken to prevent the accumulation of dust in every possible way, particularly through the use of dustless crayon. In removing dust a damp or oiled cloth should be used. The ordinary feather duster simply removes

the dust from one resting-place to another. Chalk dust should be removed from the trays, and all erasers should be cleansed at least once a day.

It is particularly important that toilets be kept clean at all times. The investigation of the Bureau showed that 51 per cent of the schools reporting have toilets cleaned daily. The seats, doors, walls, and floors should be washed at least once a week with a good germicidal preparation.

**Heating and ventilation.** Good ventilation depends upon adequate air movement, proper humidity, normal temperature, and the absence of dust and odors. The recognized standard for amount of air requires from thirty to forty cubic feet per pupil. Modern heating and ventilating plants are designed to provide for the circulation of air at the proper temperature and humidity. Health and individual efficiency depend in no small degree upon the qualities of the air of the schoolroom. One who goes from room to room in the average school building is struck by the differing conditions which he finds. In the Salt Lake City Survey temperatures taken in a large number of rooms varied from  $60^{\circ}$  to more than  $80^{\circ}$ , with only 29 per cent at  $68^{\circ}$  to  $69^{\circ}$ , the standard temperature. It is the duty of the principal to secure the best conditions possible with the available facilities.

**The principal and the janitor.** While statistics show that the principal does not often choose the janitor, he always has to live and work with him. Since they are the two most important officials in the school, it is necessary that they work on terms of mutual understanding and respect. Everyone who performs a useful task has a right to think himself important and to receive the recognition of his service. The principal should dignify the position of his janitor. He may learn much from him that will help him in the performance of his own duties. The new principal should early seek the acquaintance of his janitor and secure his good will. He has probably served under the former principal and may be at



his post when the next principal arrives. Very likely he knows more about the staff, the pupils, and the community than anyone else in the school.

Cubberley has given ten principles governing the relations between the principal and the janitor. These are here given in abridged form, but an appreciation of their good sense and fine human quality can be had only by reading them in their entirety.

1. Make your janitor feel that you are open to suggestions.
2. Make his work as light as reasonably good service permits.
3. Keep in mind that his hours are long, and that he gets tired and sleepy as other people do.
4. Protect him as far as possible from the fussy teachers of the building.
5. Do not address him as "Janitor" or "George," but as "Mr. Stowbridge," and ask your teachers to do the same.
6. Cultivate in him a feeling of ownership in the building and grounds, and occasionally take orders from him.
7. Cultivate in him a pride in doing his work and help him to find better and more economical ways of doing things.
8. Train pupils and teachers to help him in his work by keeping loose paper off the floor and in similar ways.
9. If he has a grievance, let him tell it to you; if it is a reasonable one, remedy it.
10. Show him little courtesies that come as the joint thoughtfulness of teachers and principal.

The janitor should be responsible in the performance of his daily work to the principal alone. Teachers should make their requests for the most part through the principal's office in order that the janitor may be relieved of the annoyance which comes from serving too many masters.

**Standards for janitor service.** Reasonable standards for the janitor's work should be defined and observed. The following, applying to the high school, are taken from the Rules and Regulations for Janitor Service in the public schools of Minneapolis. They are more detailed than will be necessary in many schools, but will be found suggestive.

In order that the school building may be properly cleaned, janitors are to be permitted by the principal to begin their schoolroom cleaning not later than twenty minutes after the close of the afternoon session.

Under no circumstances is there to be any sweeping done while the schools are in session, with the exception of corridors and stairs, except by permission of the principal of the school.

Under no circumstances shall coal oil or kerosene be used for cleaning purposes.

When no night school is held, each school building must be carefully and thoroughly swept each school day, the work to be commenced twenty minutes after the close of the last session and to include the entire building, together with outside closets, if any.

Assembly halls must be kept in as neat condition as classrooms.

The special sweeping-compound furnished by the board of education shall be used when sweeping.

All woodwork, moldings, window sills, wainscoting, handrails, radiators, pianos, pictures, casts, shelves, chalk troughs, principals' desks, teachers' tables, pupils' seats and desks, chairs, furniture, and apparatus of every description must be thoroughly dusted each school day.

Every school building must be thoroughly cleaned three times each year, as follows:

During the summer, Christmas, and Easter vacations the engineers and janitors shall thoroughly brush all walls, ceilings, and window shades of their respective buildings before proceeding to wash the woodwork, which shall include oil-painted walls, dadoes, baseboards, wainscoting, doors, frames, sash, and all painted and varnished woodwork. They shall thoroughly wash with water the glass in all windows, transoms, and furniture and dust all picture molding and the fronts and backs of all pictures. The floors of all entries, halls, passages, stairways, corridors, and all rooms occupied for school purposes and stair landings shall then first be well scrubbed with scrub brushes and then mopped, according to special instructions to be given by the head janitor-engineer to the head janitor of each school.

Head janitors shall see that the floors of all principals' offices, teachers' rooms, health-promotion rooms, cooking-rooms, and toilet rooms are cleaned every week, according to special instructions to be given by the head janitor-engineer for each school.

All rooms not in general use shall be kept clean and tidy at all times.

Chairs and desks shall be washed three times a year and at the same time that the general cleaning is done.

Chairs and desks which have been occupied by pupils who have contracted a contagious disease shall at once be thoroughly washed with a disinfectant to be furnished by the supply department.

Manual-training rooms shall be thoroughly swept and dusted each day after the rooms are used and all shavings, sawdust, and rubbish must be removed.

The cooking-room, including pantry and dining-room, shall be scrubbed once every week and shall be swept and dusted, and the garbage bucket emptied and cleaned each day that the room is used.

Extra precautions shall be taken in cleaning around the radiators, and to see that rags, paper, or any other material of an inflammable nature shall not come in contact with the radiators by being on or behind them.

In buildings heated by hot-air furnaces, and where floor registers are used, the register boxes must be cleaned at least once a week and oftener if necessary.

Doors and doorknobs of schoolrooms and handrails and banisters of stairs shall be washed at least twice each month with a disinfectant to be furnished by the supply department.

Janitors shall keep gas and electric fixtures clean, removing dust and dirt from the interior of all X-ray reflectors at least once each month.

Janitors are required to see that all blackboard erasers are properly cleaned in the basement of their respective buildings every day.

Janitors shall wash and fill the inkwells whenever so requested by the principal.

Janitors shall wash all blackboards and clean all chalk troughs every Saturday.

Janitors shall see that no grass is permitted to grow in the crevices of paved yards and walks and that no weeds are allowed to grow on yards or boulevards.

All planted ground shall be weeded regularly during the entire season, and the earth around shrubbery, plants, garden plats, etc. spaded up as often as necessary and at least once each session.

The grass on all school lawns and boulevards shall be watered, cut, trimmed, and raked in season at least every two weeks, and all trees, shrubs, and plants sprinkled.

All sidewalks, pavements, and yards shall be swept as often as is required to keep them in good condition and at least twice each week.

All outhouses, areas, light courts, sidewalks, gutters, playgrounds, grass plats, lawns, storerooms, boiler rooms, cellars, attics, etc. shall be kept in a neat and tidy condition, free from all rubbish, stones, litter, pieces

of paper, and other waste matter of every description, and clean and in order at all times, and the janitor is to allow no accumulation of paper, wood, ashes, or refuse of any kind therein or thereon, and a tour of inspection for the observance of these conditions shall be made at least once every day.

The urinal troughs and the floors around them shall be flushed with a hose after every recess period.

All closet seats shall be kept dry and bowls flushed during school sessions.

The urinal troughs, seats of the closets, fixtures, and floors shall be washed and disinfected every day after school sessions, and tanks in connection with water-closets must be kept free from mud and other sediment.

The water-closet bowls and urinals and all partitions to urinals and backs of same shall be cleaned at least once each week with a disinfectant to be furnished by the supply department.

At all times a sufficient supply of toilet paper shall be kept in each toilet room and towels wherever there is a lavatory.

All toilet paper and towel racks out of order must be reported at once.

The water and gas shall be turned off at the supply mains at the close of each school day and on again just before the opening of school in the morning. Every precaution shall be taken in cold weather to prevent all pipes and other apparatus from freezing and to see that all plumbing fixtures are drained during freezing weather. All damage resulting from freezing of plumbing, pipes, apparatus, or other fixtures will be charged to the janitor.

In extremely cold weather, after the water has been shut off from the building, drain the toilet and urinal tanks, open all faucets, and then fill toilet bowls and traps on fixtures with a solution of salt water.

All slop sinks, washbowls, and other fixtures throughout the building shall be cleaned every school day.

Janitors shall not clean nor allow any of their assistants to clean the windows of their school buildings on the outside while standing on the outside window sills or ledges of the school buildings without the use of a window platform or harness furnished for that purpose.

After snowstorms a path is to be cleared on all walks and steps in and about the school premises before 8 A. M., so as to provide access to the several entrances to the buildings and to outhouses.

All snow and ice must be removed from steps, fire escapes, entrances, and inside and outside walks of the school premises before 12 o'clock noon of the same day that the storm occurs.

Janitors shall sprinkle sand or ashes or salt upon sidewalks when they are in a slippery condition, a supply of sand, ashes, or salt for this purpose to be kept on hand.

Janitors shall keep fire escapes clear and clean at all times.

Floors paved with marble, slate, cement, terrazzo, or other material shall be washed as frequently as may be necessary to keep them clean.

During the winter months the boiler room, engine room, and the inside of all fresh-air shafts are to be whitewashed.

Special attention is to be given to the flow of water in urinals, drinking-fountains, etc. and all leaks promptly stopped, and the water for urinals, drinking-fountains, etc. turned off as soon as school is dismissed.

The electric current used for lighting, power, and stereoptican shall be shut off from the building at the service switch each night before leaving the building.

All refuse matter, excelsior, waste paper, oil waste, oily and dirty rags, sweepings, rubbish, vegetable matter, animal matter, and all inflammable or combustible materials shall be collected and placed in receptacles provided for that purpose and then burned or removed from the buildings each day.

No smoking or chewing of tobacco in or about the building or premises will be allowed.

The use of intoxicants while in or about the school or premises is strictly prohibited.

No matches shall be allowed in the school buildings, except safety matches, which shall be under the immediate charge of the head janitor.

The use of alcohol, gasoline, or coal-oil stoves is not to be allowed for any purpose whatever, except when used by teachers for the instruction of pupils.

The janitor is to use extraordinary precautions against fire and is to become familiar with the use and care of fire extinguishers.

**Summary.** The school plant with its equipment and care is a very important factor in the work of the school. The principal has a very definite responsibility for the best use of the facilities provided and for such improvements and enlargements as are needed to increase the effectiveness of his school. He should use every proper means of publicity to acquaint the community with the needs of his school and to secure the necessary financial support. He should be acquainted with the best standards for building and equip-



ping school buildings and should see that available funds are judiciously expended in accordance with these. He will often find it necessary to exert vigorous pressure against ignorance and tradition in order to secure proper attention to the demands of health, serviceability, and æsthetic values.

With respect to the maintenance and care of the school plant the principal's responsibility is definite and continuous. The health and efficiency of pupils and teachers depend in no small degree upon the care which is daily given to the school building and grounds. The principal's problem is a human one, depending upon his ability to secure the intelligent and faithful service of his janitorial staff.

### PROBLEMS AND QUESTIONS

1. A high school of four hundred pupils has no playground. A vacant lot across the street is soon to be placed on the market for residential purposes. Outline a plan for securing the purchase of this lot for a school playground.
2. In a growing city of ten thousand population the high-school building, erected in 1904, is overcrowded. Some influential citizens are ready to support a campaign for additional facilities. They have only vague notions about the junior high school. The superintendent, an old-timer, thinks the junior high school is a fad. The principal is progressive and popular in the community. What should he do under the circumstances?
3. Make a rough sketch of the floor plan of the administrative offices suitable for a high school of eight hundred pupils. List the furniture and equipment needed.
4. What provision can be made for fire prevention and escape in a building of non-fireproof construction?
5. List the characteristics of the best janitor you have known.
6. To what extent, if any, should the janitor be given authority over pupils?
7. Make a working list of ten or fifteen standards that would cover the most essential duties of the high-school janitor.

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*Form IV.* Standard Requirements for Plans of School Buildings and Sites.  
*Form V.* Blank Forms for Architectural Competitions.

## CHAPTER XIII

### THE SCHEDULE OF RECITATIONS

Of all the routine tasks that fall to the lot of the high-school administrator the making of the schedule<sup>1</sup> of recitations is at once one of the most important and the most difficult. Its importance rests upon the fact that the smooth running of the intricate machinery of the school, from the opening morning to the last day of the year, depends largely upon the skill with which the schedule of recitations has been made. Its difficulty results from the many restricting elements that must be reconciled with one another, among which may be mentioned the wide range of studies that may be elected by the pupils, the number of rooms available for recitations and study purposes, the laboratory and shop facilities, the number of teachers and their special fitness for certain classes. Besides these, there are many minor considerations attention to which is essential to the finest adjustment of the schedule.

The making of the schedule for a small school is no less important than for a large school, nor is it less difficult except in the amount of labor involved in securing the elections and making the assignments of pupils. The difficulty of avoiding conflicts between classes is even greater in the small school, in which there are few if any duplicate sections in the subjects offered.

The principal is responsible for the schedule as he is for all other details of administration. He may be fortunate enough to have an assistant principal or some teacher to

<sup>1</sup>The term "schedule" is preferable to "program," as generally used, because the latter is employed in quite a different sense in "program of studies," which designates all the curriculum offerings of the school.

whom he may delegate the task with confidence that it will be well done, but in most schools the principal himself must handle the problem. Good organization will reduce to a minimum the actual labor which he will have to perform. The principal who spends his summer vacation agonizing over the schedule for the next year is usually paying the penalty of his own lack of foresight and administrative skill. In the preparation of the data on which the schedule is based pupils and teachers may render much valuable assistance; but the final organization of the schedule is a highly technical task, and can be properly done only by an expert who will become more skillful from year to year.

Once made, a good schedule can be continued from year to year with only such changes as experience suggests or new developments demand. A folder should be kept, in which are placed from time to time during the year memoranda as incidents arise which suggest difficulties to be avoided for the next year. The memory cannot be trusted to recall these in the midst of the intricate process of schedule-making.

It is not unusual for a school to begin the year in absolute confusion: classes are without teachers, sections are overcrowded, large numbers of pupils are unassigned. This condition sometimes continues for days. The result is not merely a loss of time at the opening of the year, but there is throughout the school an impression of ineffectiveness which is not at once overcome when a working schedule is achieved. It is possible to have the schedule in complete operation at the first period of the new year without the necessity of the addition or change of a single class. The effect of this businesslike opening upon both pupils and teachers is most important. An investigation of the procedure of seventeen city and suburban schools in the vicinity of Chicago showed that seven schools required not more than two changes in schedule after the opening of the year, and one required no change at all. At the other extreme one school found it

necessary to make twenty-nine changes. It should be the aim of the principal when his school assembles for the new semester to have each pupil with his schedule in his hand, each teacher with his class lists on his desk, and all pupils assigned to rooms for recitation and study in sections of suitable size.

**Preliminary steps.** To secure this result careful preparation is necessary. This should be begun not later than six weeks before the close of the semester. The first step is to secure from each pupil a statement of the studies which he wishes to take during the next semester. The method will vary according to the form of organization employed in the school. Many schools assign groups of pupils to teachers in charge of session rooms; others have advisory groups for which advisers are responsible. At Grand Rapids these advisers serve as administrative officers, in charge of groups of two hundred pupils each. In some smaller schools the principal attends to this preliminary himself, feeling that this opportunity for intimate contact and personal guidance justifies the use of the time required. Whoever is assigned to this step must be familiar with the details of the school's curricula and must be able to give sympathetic and intelligent advice to pupils, based on their interests and capacities and their several needs. Printed or mimeographed information should be placed in the hands of the pupils as a basis for their selection of courses for the coming semester. In many schools the approval of parents is secured before the pupil's elections are accepted. Blank forms (see page 251) for this purpose should contain a list of the studies taken at the time and those desired for the next semester. These should include the designations of courses employed in the school, so that no additional data will be necessary for the proper class assignment in each subject.

When the blanks have been filled out for all pupils in the school, the information should be tabulated so as to show the number of pupils who have elected each subject. This tabu-



lation may best be made for each group by the teacher or adviser in charge. The totals are then placed in the hands of the principal or the committee which is to make the schedule. The original blanks are held by the session-room teacher or adviser, for later revisions will be necessary because of the failure of some pupils to pass their courses. If the individual schedules of pupils are to be made out by the advisers, the blanks will also be needed for that purpose.

Provision has thus far been made for the pupils in the school during the previous semester. It is equally important to secure definite data regarding those who are to enter the school for the first time. This can best be done through the grade teachers in the elementary schools. The principal or some other representative of the high school should go to each elementary school and talk to the class that is to be transferred to the high school. The same detailed information regarding the offerings of the first year should be given, and blanks should be filled out and handled by the elementary teachers in the same manner as described above.

In some schools provision is made for a visit to the high school by the elementary-school pupils who are nearing promotion. This visit affords opportunity for giving the necessary information and also for removing some of the forebodings with which these younger pupils may approach their new experiences in the high school. In this connection the following statement from Principal R. G. Heitman of the Sioux City, Iowa, High School regarding the observance of "Big Brother and Big Sister Day" is interesting:

Near the close of each semester, all pupils of the senior eighth grade of the Sioux City public schools visit the high school for half a day. This is known as Big Brother and Big Sister Day. As a rule seniors act as ushers for these freshmen-to-be, although sometimes acquaintances from the same school or neighborhood conduct them. These newcomers are taken to visit the various classes of their guides and shown where and how to get their lunch. During his vacant period the usher has the privilege of showing the visitors around the building.

The scheme has done much to take away the newness for the entering class. They learn the location of rooms and get a general acquaintance with high-school régime. In many cases it has also led to a kind of guardianship, for the senior who has "big-brothered" a younger boy feels a kindly interest toward him after he enters and helps him through many difficulties. To some extent at least this plan may be responsible for the fact that such a high per cent of those promoted enter the high school.

From the separate totals handed in by session-room teachers or advisers covering the elections of pupils already members of the school and of those to be promoted from the elementary schools, the principal or, preferably, the schedule committee next draws up a tally sheet, showing the number of pupils electing each course. From this tally sheet the number of divisions in each course can be determined. At the opening of the next school year there will, of course, be found variations from the figures of the tally sheet, due to the failure of some pupils to return to school and to the influx of new pupils from sources that could not be definitely determined before the making of the schedule. A fairly accurate prediction regarding these items, however, may be made on the basis of previous experience in a given school, so that there should be need of few or no changes in the schedule as it is finally made. It is, of course, important that no pupils be allowed to change their elections except for valid reasons.

**Determining factors.** Up to this point the preliminary work should have been accomplished by a schedule committee (which need not be large), assisted by a considerable number of session-room teachers or advisers. At this point comes the making of the schedule, a highly technical task, which can be best done by one person who is familiar with all the varying factors that enter into the problem. Among the determining factors the following may be mentioned as important:

1. *Number of classrooms available.* In most schools the number of classrooms is so limited as to require approximately the same number of classes at each period of the day.

2. *Available study-room space.* Some schools have one or more large study halls, which will accommodate the pupils not assigned to recitations. In others only classrooms are available for this purpose, and many pupils may of necessity be assigned to unoccupied seats in rooms in which classes are reciting. It is important that pupils should not be placed during their study periods in large assembly halls which are not furnished with suitable desks and in which the lighting is not adequate for study.

3. *Number of teachers and their adaptability to the classes to which they are assigned.* Careful discrimination is necessary in the assignment of teachers in order to secure the best results in instruction. It is sometimes important to exercise this discrimination in the choice of teachers for individual pupils.

4. *Length and number of periods.* There is a marked tendency to lengthen the recitation period in order to increase the effectiveness of instruction and to afford time for supervised study. This is to be preferred to the plan of providing for supervised study in special periods at the end of the school day. In some schools double periods are allowed for this purpose in the work of the earlier years. This lengthening of the period is often accompanied by a corresponding increase in the school day; in some cases it results in a reduction in the total number of periods.

5. *Laboratory and shop periods.* If double laboratory periods are used, as is the case in most schools, they present considerable difficulty of adjustment. The increasing practice of single laboratory periods, which is based on other considerations than those related to schedule-making, simplifies this troublesome factor.

6. *Classes meeting fewer than five times a week.* Various subjects, such as music, physical training, and military drill, usually require but one or two periods a week; some other subjects of the more formal type are given less than five periods. Unless these can be so arranged as to come at the

same period or to alternate with laboratory periods, serious difficulties will result in providing for the widely varying study-room requirements on different days.

7. *Subjects with only one section.* These will be found in considerable number, and it will be necessary to employ the utmost care in so placing them that conflicts in pupils' schedules shall not occur. This is likely to prove the most baffling single factor in making the schedule, and it sometimes becomes impossible to provide for some of the irregular schedules of individual pupils.

8. *The factor of fatigue.* While we have very little scientific knowledge regarding fatigue, it is generally assumed that more effective school work can be done at certain periods of the day than at others. Some provision may be made for this in the placing of subjects in the schedule. In making schedules for individual pupils alternation of study and recitations can usually be arranged. Some schools place each subject at a different period each day, thus equalizing any effect of fatigue between the different subjects. The De Witt Clinton, the largest high school in New York City, has this plan, as does also the English High School of Boston, with an enrollment of over two thousand pupils.

9. *Assembly period.* In some schools the weekly assembly takes the place of one of the regular periods, rotating through the number of periods in order. An objection to this plan arises from the fact that certain times in the day are better adapted than others to a thoroughly successful assembly. This difficulty may be obviated by holding the assembly at the same hour each day on which it occurs, and moving the remaining periods forward or backward to secure the necessary rotation. In some schools the assembly is held at the same hour each week, the periods of the day being equally shortened to provide the necessary time. In any case there will be some readjustment with accompanying loss, which is justified by the importance of the well-conducted assembly.

**Making the schedule.** With these determining factors in mind and the tally sheet in hand, the schedule-maker is ready for his task. There are in general two methods of making a schedule: the *block* method and the *mosaic* method. The former may be described as the more scientific and therefore more desirable, particularly in a large school; but the latter is more commonly used.

**The block method.** The block method consists in arranging all the recitation sections in nonconflicting groups. In practice it will be found that from five to eight such blocks will be required. These blocks should contain approximately the same number of recitation sections each. Marsh describes a schedule of five blocks containing from twenty-five to twenty-eight sections each, and Richardson a similar method, employing seven blocks. One familiar with school administration will readily see that certain subjects will ordinarily present no chance of conflict; for example, the successive years of foreign-language classes. The definite requirement in many schools that only one foreign language may be begun at the same time gives another principle for block-making. Different sections of the same subject (for example, English I) will naturally be placed in different blocks, unless, as is now coming to be a common practice, it is desired to place two or more sections of one subject at the same period so that reassignments of pupils may be made on the basis of ability. The placing of the one-section subjects so as to avoid conflicts is a delicate task in making up the blocks.

With the blocks arranged there follows the assignment to rooms and teachers. If the blocks are made up of a uniform number of classes, based on the number of rooms available, the assignment of rooms is not difficult. The same may be said with regard to teachers, except that it is not always easy to make the most desirable assignments on the basis of the special adaptability of individual teachers to certain classes.



For the actual task it is well to make a layout of teachers and rooms on a blackboard or large sheet of paper, filling in the blank spaces from the blocks as planned. This process should be accompanied by the use of two tally sheets, one for rooms, the other for teachers, on which a check should be made whenever a teacher or a room is assigned. When the schedule is completed, it should be rechecked throughout to avoid the embarrassment of discovering, when it is put in operation, that two classes have been assigned to the same teacher or room at the same time. It is also wise to submit to each department head the completed schedule of his department for his approval. Experience, however, causes one to hesitate to offer at this point an opportunity for suggestion of changes, since this procedure is likely to be followed by requests which it is impossible to consider in view of the schedule as a whole.

**The mosaic method.** The mosaic method, as the term implies, consists in attempting to place the various sections in the schedule in such a way as to avoid conflicts and to meet the conditions which determine a working schedule in a given school. It is an agonizing job, in which some acquire considerable skill. In such cases it is probable that they develop in a somewhat undefined way the principle which distinguishes the block method. The writer has heard a principal of seven hundred pupils describe this method, by which he placed on a blank diagram of his proposed schedule squares of pasteboard on which the designations of the different sections were written. These squares were of different colors, one for each year. By shifting these about he finally hit upon a working combination. It is worth noting that he said he spent an average of two hours daily during the entire summer vacation in working out his schedule and was assisted in the process by his wife.

**Individual pupil's schedules.** With the schedule of recitations completed there remains the final task of making the individual schedules of the pupils. If each step has been accu-

rately taken up to this point, this becomes largely a matter of good organization. The method varies from that in which these are made out by the session-room teachers or by committees of teachers to that in which the pupils make out their own schedules. The former method (the usual practice) is better adapted to large schools and is probably more efficient in any school, although the latter is frequently used in schools of considerable size. In the Central High School, St. Paul, those pupils who pass in all their studies are allowed to make their own schedules. It is claimed that this plan secures valuable training in initiative and furnishes incentive to good work. About two thirds of the labor involved in making the schedule in this school is done by pupils, who thus get an insight into this intricate problem which is thought to be of considerable educational value. In the Central High School of Grand Rapids, however, the plan of having the pupils make out their own schedules was found after several years' experience to be wasteful and was abandoned, with a resulting improvement in efficiency.

To secure the necessary revision of elections of pupils who fail in certain courses it is highly desirable that reports of failures be in the hands of the session-room teachers or advisers before the last day of the term so that the revisions may be made in consultation with the pupils. This may seem to present insuperable difficulties, but such is not the case. In the St. Paul school referred to, final marks are in the hands of the enrollment teachers on Wednesday morning of the last week, and all changes are made on that day. On Thursday and Friday of that week the pupils do not report, and teachers are thus free to complete all the details of the schedule for the coming term. If no provision is made for individual consultation regarding revision of schedules, these changes must be made arbitrarily or allowed to go over to the opening of the next term. In the latter case there will result much confusion, which it is very desirable to prevent.

The most economical method of making the individual schedules is to place this task in the hands of the advisers of each group. This ordinarily gives to one teacher the making of about thirty schedules, which he can accomplish in a maximum time of two hours. As these teachers would be working independently, the result might easily be that some sections would be overcrowded; to avoid this difficulty the pupils should be distributed equally among the different sections in each subject in which there is more than one section. When the schedules are completed, tally sheets are made showing the number of pupils assigned to each subject and section, and these, with the completed schedules, are turned over to the schedule committee. A final tally sheet, made up of the separate tally sheets, shows the total number of pupils assigned to each section on the schedule.

Of course there will be found pupils whose schedules present peculiar and sometimes insuperable difficulties. These will have to be assigned to the principal or some designated assistant. In some cases it will be necessary to change the elections of the pupil; in others groups of subjects which appear to be absolutely essential to the pupils may be found to present conflicts. As a last resort it may be necessary to attempt changes of the entire schedule. At this point such changes are extremely difficult; their necessity is usually due to some oversight at an earlier point in the layout of the schedule. If the situation involves any considerable number of pupils, the easiest way out of the dilemma is usually to schedule an additional section.

In some well-organized schools the making of individual schedules is accomplished by committees composed of one representative from each department and, in addition, a reader and a checker. With a layout of the entire schedule on a blackboard or chart the reader reads each subject from the individual election cards, the teacher from the appropriate department makes the assignment to a given section, the

reader records this on the pupil's card, and the checker checks it on the chart. As the various sections are filled they are checked off on the chart as closed. This method requires more time, since a number of committees must take their parts of the work in succession. A method similar to this is described in detail in the article on schedule-making in the Grand Rapids school referred to above.

A very interesting device for making individual schedules is employed in the De Witt Clinton High School, New York, consisting of a series of thirty nonconflicting blocks so arranged that each subject falls at a different period on each day of the week. A sample block is as follows: Mon. 1, Wed. 4, Fri. 5, Tue. 2, Thu. 3, the numbers representing the period at which the subject falls on the day designated. With the entire schedule conforming to this arrangement it is a very simple matter to make the schedule of any pupil. In the Stuyvesant High School, New York, a most ingenious mechanical device is used, consisting of a strip of wood with revolving spindles, by means of which a committee of teachers, with the assistance of a group of boys, make out in a surprisingly short time the schedules of over five thousand pupils.

Where pupils make out their own schedules it is necessary to devise some plan by which these may be checked up as they are made, and to keep a tally sheet so that great inequality in the size of sections may be prevented. In the St. Paul High School, in which pupils who pass in all their studies are allowed this privilege, the schedules are tallied in the order Seniors, Juniors, Sophomores, Freshmen, because in cases of conflicts and filled classes the lower-class schedules are more easily adjusted. It is stated, however, that as a rule classes fill up evenly. This is not possible where all pupils make their own schedules unless some accurate method of checking is employed. In the University of Chicago High School, with four hundred pupils, this method was employed for a number of years under the author's direction. The system was

so organized that the results were checked on the spot, and no overcrowded sections resulted. The pupils' elections were made and the schedule of recitations was completed before the end of the old year. Just before the regular opening of the new year the pupils of each class met in one room for a period of two hours. On entering the room each pupil was given a printed schedule of recitations, and a card on which was written his approved list of subjects for the year. He then proceeded to make out his schedule, choosing such hours and teachers as he wished. This he submitted to a teacher, one each for boys and girls, who acted as inspector and signed his initials in approval if the schedule conformed to the election blank. The pupil then presented the approved schedule to a clerk, who had in open filing cases sets of cards properly designated for each subject and section and corresponding in number to the number of pupils to be assigned to each section. This clerk took from these groups of cards one for each item on the pupil's schedule. These cards were then attached with a clip to the pupil's schedule card and were passed to another clerk, who at once wrote the pupil's name on each class card and reassorted them in filing cases under their appropriate headings. The dummy class-lists from the files of the first clerk thus became the actual class-lists in the files of the second clerk. Each pupil retained a duplicate copy of his schedule. As soon as the class cards for any section in the dummy files were exhausted, this section was known to be full, and a bulletin to this effect was placed upon the board. In fact, such a bulletin was posted when there were five places still remaining, in order to provide for difficult adjustments which were likely to arise. In case a pupil presented a schedule involving some class already filled, he was sent back to try a different combination. As soon as the registration of a given group was thus completed, the lists of pupils in each section could be at once made from the cards on file. This method had the advantage that only



those pupils who were in actual attendance were included in the files and the corresponding class-lists, and before the opening day each pupil had in his own hands his schedule for the coming term.

In the various blanks employed in schedule-making it is important that some system of designations be used showing in concise form all the items of information necessary to the process. It is customary to mark by Roman numerals the courses in a given subject; for example, Latin I, Latin III specify the first and third years in that language. The year in which the pupils are classified may be indicated by Arabic numerals; if there are two or more sections in the same subject, they may be designated by letters; for example, French I2b would mean the first year in French taken by second-year pupils of section b. The teacher's name may be indicated by an initial letter. In the English High School, Boston, P31Mi means physics, a third-year subject, reciting in Block 1, taught by Mr. Miller. In any given school the designation should be simple, uniform, and complete.

It is desirable that the completed schedule be printed or otherwise presented in the most pleasing form possible, making easily available the information necessary to determine at any hour of the day just what work is in progress in each department of the school.

**Summary.** The most important points in schedule-making may be summarized as follows:

1. Several weeks before the close of the semester all pupils who are to continue in the school and those who are to be promoted from the elementary school should, under careful guidance, make their elections of studies for the next semester. Their elections, once made, should not be changed except for valid cause.

2. A detailed tabulation should be made of the number of pupils who are to be enrolled for each subject for the next semester.

3. The schedule should be made to conform to this tabulation and to meet such conditioning factors as the number and capacity of classrooms and study-rooms, the number and adaptability of teachers, the number and length of periods, laboratory and shop periods, subjects meeting an irregular number of times a week, single-section subjects, pupil fatigue, and the general assembly.

4. The *block* method of schedule-making is preferable to the *mosaic* method.

5. The individual pupil's schedule should be made out before the opening day of the new semester.

6. The principal's aim should be to have each pupil with his schedule in his hand, each teacher with his class lists on his desk, and all assigned to rooms for recitation and study in sections of suitable size at the opening session of the semester.

7. Good administration will make all this possible and will relieve the principal of undue labor by the enlistment of the assistance of teachers and pupils of his school.

### PROBLEMS AND QUESTIONS

1. It is the practice of some schools to send members of the senior class to the elementary schools to give the necessary information to prospective high-school pupils. Comment on this.

2. What disadvantages occur to you in connection with Big Brother and Big Sister Day?

3. Is it more difficult to make a schedule for a school of two hundred and fifty than of eight hundred pupils? Support your answer with specific reasons.

4. What advantages and disadvantages are involved in requiring the parent's signature on the pupil's election blanks?

5. How can double periods in science be arranged so as to make an economical use of laboratories?

6. What advantages and disadvantages are involved in allowing pupils to make out their own schedules?

7. What difficulties in schedule-making are introduced by the system of homogeneous groupings on the basis of ability? How can these difficulties be met?

8. What is the best hour for the school assembly?

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## CHAPTER XIV

### BLANK FORMS AND RECORDS

Modern business makes extensive use of blank forms and filing devices to facilitate and systematize its operations by providing information, exact and easily accessible, regarding employees, raw material, finished product, markets, customers, and the like. Similar devices serve an equally important purpose in handling the personnel and equipment of a well-organized school. Inasmuch as the school is administered from a central office, with a limited and usually inadequate clerical force, good management would require that the blanks used and the filing methods employed should secure the largest possible results with the least expenditure of time and material.

A critical examination of the blanks used in a large number of schools reveals evidences of great zeal on the part of school officers to employ business devices; it also reveals an amazing ingenuity in different schools in originating forms unlike those used in any other school, which must be a considerable source of satisfaction to manufacturers of office equipment and to local printing-offices in every part of the country. The number of forms used in schools of similar size varies from a dozen to forty or even more. In the case of blanks used for the same purpose in forty schools there were found no two that contained exactly the same items, and there was an almost endless variety in size, color, and quality of material used. Even schools in the same city show little if any greater uniformity in this regard. In the five high schools of one city there was found only one blank that was used in more than one school, and even this was not used in all five of the

schools. In most cases there is little evidence of any attempt to correlate the blanks used into a complete and economical system. They seem to have grown by a method of accretion. Whenever a need is felt for a new bit of information, a new card is added to those already in use, with the result that many school offices are littered with cards and filing cases quite beyond the capacity of the office force to care for.

In the interest of good administration it is important that the system of blanks employed in any school should be made to conform to principles of good business management. It is not necessary that there should be uniformity in detail between the schools of different communities, though an approach to uniformity in essentials is desirable where it is possible to set up standard forms. All schools within a single system, however, should develop and use a uniform system of blanks. A committee of teachers, with the head clerk or an officer of administration, may well deal with the problem in a single school; in the case of two or more schools in the same city a committee representing all the schools may deal with the task.

There are certain principles that may be set up for guidance in the adoption of a system of blanks for any school.

1. The purpose of blank forms in school administration is to save time in securing necessary information for use either in (1) temporary routine or in (2) permanent records. An example of the former is the blank or blanks used by the excusing officer in the central office or by the home-room teacher in handling tardiness or absence. These blanks have served their purpose when they have been delivered to the pupil and the teachers concerned. Examples of the blank for permanent record are the registration, or personal-data card, the pupil's schedule, and the permanent-record card.

2. The number and character of forms required by different schools vary according to the conditions found in each school. A small school with limited clerical service requires and can



use effectively a smaller number than would be necessary in a larger school. A school in an industrial community needs blanks for recording data on the vocational qualifications of pupils, for opportunities of employment, and for the follow-up of pupils placed in employment. With respect to the number of blanks the principle may be laid down that the number should be as small as is consistent with the ends sought.

3. Each blank should make provision for all necessary information and for no other. The duplication of items of information on two or more cards is sometimes desirable, for each should contain whatever is necessary to serve its purpose without reference to other forms. It is particularly important that the pupil's permanent-record card should be complete and capable of easy and accurate interpretation. It not infrequently happens that after a few years pupils' records are quite unintelligible either for purposes of transcription or for studies of administrative problems.

4. Economy of labor and material is an important consideration. Where blanks are to be filled out by teachers or clerks the least possible amount of writing should be required. A simple check mark may sometimes be made to take the place of several written words. The arrangement of the several items on a card may be made to economize the time of busy workers. With the large number of cards to be handled much saving may thus be secured.

The material used should be adapted to the purpose of the blank. Those which are only for temporary use should be of inexpensive material and are often more convenient in the form of pads; those intended for permanent filing should be of more durable material. It is not unusual to find the pupil's permanent record on thin loose leaves perforated for binding. The dilapidated condition in which these are found after a short time indicates the necessity of selecting suitable material. Blanks should be made uniform in size and dimensions, as far as is feasible. An examination of the blanks used

in individual schools shows a remarkable variety of shapes and sizes, with little apparent regard for the use to be made of the various forms. Uniformity in those blanks for temporary use is not of great importance, and should be sacrificed for considerations of economy of material and convenience of use; but in the case of cards for permanent filing reasonable uniformity is desirable. These should also be of sizes to fit the standard filing cases.

The various blanks used in high school (not all of which may be needed in individual schools) may be classified under the following heads:

1. Registration
2. Schedule of recitations
3. Attendance
4. Teachers' reports
5. Permanent-achievement record
6. Health
7. Reports to parents
8. Vocation
9. Supplies and equipment
10. Reports to superintendent
11. Miscellaneous devices

**1. Registration card.** This card should contain the pupil's name, residence, date and place of birth, parents' name and occupation, telephone number, name of school last attended, and such other information as will be found useful in connection with each pupil. In schools situated in communities where residence is relatively stable, the same card, once filled out, may serve from year to year. In most schools it is more convenient to have new cards filed each year. These cards should be made of durable material, for they will be much in use. At the end of the year or when the pupil leaves school these cards may be destroyed, as all the data of permanent value should be contained in the permanent-record card. The accompanying form (Form I) is suggested. To it

may be added such other items as locker number, assembly seat, home-room number, date of vaccination, and any others which are found convenient in any school. A card  $3 \times 5$  inches is most suitable for this purpose.

2. **Schedule of recitations.** In connection with the schedule of recitations three forms are necessary, the uses of which are described in detail in Chapter XIII: an election blank, the pupil's schedule card, and the schedule of recitations.

#### FORM I. REGISTRATION CARD ( $3 \times 5$ INCHES)

REGISTRATION CARD _____			HIGH SCHOOL _____
NAME _____	_____		DATE _____
(LAST NAME)	(FIRST NAME)	(MIDDLE NAME)	
NAME OF PARENT OR GUARDIAN _____			
RESIDENCE _____			
TELEPHONE OF PARENT OR GUARDIAN: _____			
RESIDENCE _____		BUSINESS _____	
OCCUPATION OF PARENT _____			
DATE OF BIRTH _____		PLACE OF BIRTH _____	
(MONTH) (DAY) (YEAR)			
SCHOOL LAST ATTENDED _____			
GRADE OR YEAR LAST FINISHED _____			

The election blank is for the purpose of securing carefully prepared information in advance as a basis for making the schedule of recitations for the following semester. It should contain lists of the subjects taken by the pupil at the time the blank is filled out and of those subjects which the pupil desires for the following semester. It is necessary for the pupil to have definite knowledge of the subjects to be offered and of the specific requirements which the school makes with regard to sequences or the combinations of subjects required for graduation. The blanks used in some schools contain all this information for the pupil's guidance. As it is expected that these blanks will be filled out under the guidance of a

home-room teacher or some other competent person, it is better not to cumber the blank with this material. When the blank is completed, it should contain the indorsement of the adviser; when desired, the indorsement of the parent may also be added. A column should also be provided for a check

FORM II. PUPIL'S ELECTION BLANK (5 × 7 INCHES)

PUPIL'S ELECTION BLANK		
_____HIGH SCHOOL		
NAME _____		
HOME-ROOM NUMBER _____ DATE _____		
PRESENT SUBJECTS	CHECK	SUBJECTS DESIRED
APPROVED _____		
<i>Adviser</i>		

to indicate whether the subjects taken at the time the blank is filled out are finally completed satisfactorily. The subjects should be written in a prescribed order for convenience in later use. A sample blank (Form II) is given above. This should be printed on thin paper, suitable for writing in ink. It is of no permanent value after it has served its initial use.

The pupil's schedule card should show where the pupil may be found at every hour of the day. It should be made out in duplicate, one card to be retained by the pupil, the other to be filed in the office. The card for filing should be made of durable material. A convenient size is 4 × 6 inches. Form III illustrates this blank.

FORM III. PUPIL'S SCHEDULE CARD (4 × 6 INCHES)

PUPIL'S SCHEDULE CARD _____ HIGH SCHOOL										
NAME _____						DATE _____				
PERIOD	MONDAY		TUESDAY		WEDNESDAY		THURSDAY		FRIDAY	
	Subject	Room	Subject	Room	Subject	Room	Subject	Room	Subject	Room

The schedule of recitations should show exactly what is going on in the school at every hour of the day. It should be so arranged as to give in concise form, easily interpreted, full information about teachers, subjects, sections, rooms, and hours. No prescribed form, applicable to all schools, can be given. It should be well printed, although very satisfactory blue-print reproductions are sometimes found. The accompanying illustration (Form IV) of a portion of a schedule shows a form well adapted to a school of five hundred pupils or less. The same form might be used for schools of even larger size. In the form illustrated it is to be understood that the classes meet daily at the same period, each under the instructor and in the room designated. In case classes do not recite daily, the days may be indicated by the abbreviations M., T., W., Th., F. printed under the instructor's name.



## FORM IV. SCHEDULE OF RECITATIONS

PERIOD	ENGLISH	MATHEMATICS
I.	I a. <i>Miss Smith 206</i>	II a. <i>Mr. Clark 103</i>
	II b. <i>Miss Brown 204</i>	III b. <i>Mr. Towne 104</i>
	III a. <i>Mr. Jones 205</i>	IV. <i>Mr. Adams 105</i>
II.	I b. <i>Miss Smith 206</i>	I a. <i>Mr. Clark 103</i>
	II a. <i>Miss Brown 204</i>	II b. <i>Mr. Towne 104</i>
	IV a. <i>Mr. Jones 205</i>	III b. <i>Mr. Adams 105</i>

3. **Attendance.** The handling of attendance is an important piece of daily routine. An examination of the blanks employed in a large number of schools reveals great variety in methods of procedure and in degree of complexity. It cannot be said that any single method is the best. Probably many of them are practicable. The test of efficiency is the result secured. In general it may be said that that system is best which attains the desired result with the least labor. The aim is to secure the regular and punctual attendance of each pupil at every hour of the day. This involves the fixing of the responsibility of control, complete and prompt reports of all delinquencies, and the following up of irregularities. Each pupil should feel that pressure toward regularity in meeting his appointments which comes from careful checking and prompt and firm insistence upon compliance with all attendance requirements.

The most common practice is for the principal to assume the responsibility of direct control. When he has an assistant, it is usual to assign the task to this officer; sometimes a clerk handles all but the unusual cases. A method often employed, particularly in the larger schools, places the control of attendance in the hands of home-room teachers. This form of procedure inevitably results in some lack of uniformity on the part of the different teachers, but it has the distinct

advantage of taking from the central office a good deal of time-consuming routine. It also assures a more intimate handling of personal situations than is possible in the crowded office.

Whatever system is used, some form of blank is required for the report of individual teachers to the attendance officer. This takes one of two forms: (1) sheets on which the names of pupils absent or tardy are reported for the day, sometimes on a single sheet, sometimes on a blank for each class period; (2) individual cards or slips on which each pupil's irregularity is reported. The former, which is most commonly used, involves less work for the individual teacher, but is less convenient for the attendance officer in checking and following up his part of the routine. The individual slips, which can be arranged in alphabetical order, obviate this difficulty. These blanks should be printed on light stock and made up into pads. Convenient forms are shown in Forms V and VI.

Pupils should be required to report to the attendance officer before being readmitted to the recitation section from which they have been absent. A readmission slip signed by this officer and presented to the teacher is evidence that the proper adjustment has been made and relieves the classroom teacher of further responsibility in the case. Sometimes this slip gives information as to the cause of the absence. Slips of two colors are sometimes used, one indicating that the absence is due to a satisfactory cause, the other that the reason is unsatisfactory. In the latter case a uniform penalty is sometimes prescribed: a mark of zero may be given, or the privilege of making up the work with credit may be denied. The requirement in some schools that this readmission slip should be signed with the name or initials of each teacher to whom it is presented, and returned to the attendance officer, is a needless addition, involving much unnecessary labor. If the slip is not presented, the pupil is not allowed readmission and is again reported absent; if the pupil is not again reported

**FORM V. TEACHER'S DAILY ATTENDANCE REPORT**  
(5 × 8 INCHES)

DAILY ATTENDANCE REPORT \_\_\_\_\_ HIGH SCHOOL

DATE \_\_\_\_\_ ROOM \_\_\_\_\_

TEACHER \_\_\_\_\_

[illegible]

FORM VI. TEACHER'S DAILY ATTENDANCE REPORT  
(3 × 5 INCHES)

DAILY ATTENDANCE REPORT		_____ HIGH SCHOOL
DATE _____	ROOM _____	
TEACHER _____		
PUPIL'S NAME _____		
PERIODS _____	ABSENT (CHECK) _____	TARDY (CHECK) _____

absent, the excusing officer is thus assured of his return to the class. These blanks should be of small size, printed on light stock, and made up into pads. Form VII shows a suitable form.

FORM VII. READMISSION BLANK (3 × 5 INCHES)

READMISSION BLANK	_____ HIGH SCHOOL								
PLEASE ADMIT _____	DATE _____								
<i>Satisfactory explanations of the following absences have been given :</i>									
PERIODS									
DATE OF ABSENCE _____	<table border="1" style="display: inline-table; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="padding: 2px;">ALL</td> <td style="padding: 2px;">1</td> <td style="padding: 2px;">2</td> <td style="padding: 2px;">3</td> <td style="padding: 2px;">4</td> <td style="padding: 2px;">5</td> <td style="padding: 2px;">6</td> <td style="padding: 2px;">7</td> </tr> </table>	ALL	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ALL	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Check periods absent									
_____									

If the absence has been for one or more entire days, a check is placed in the first square of this blank; if the absence has been for only a part of a day, checks are placed in the squares indicating the numbers of the periods missed. For use in cases where the cause of the absence is not accepted as satisfactory, a similar blank of another color may be used, with the substitution of the word "unsatisfactory" in place of "satisfactory."

In schools in which provision is made for medical inspection, pupils returning to school after illness, however slight, are required to report first to the medical officer, from whom a blank is secured authorizing their return to school. This blank is then presented by the pupil to the regular excusing officer.

Numerous other blanks are frequently employed which, though of minor importance, serve useful purposes in the orderly conduct of the school. Such are forms to be used in cases of early dismissal, or temporary passes from the building or from one room to another. Word-of-mouth permits without adequate methods of checking up may result in much irregularity. Form VIII may be used in giving permits to the library or to any other room during study periods. It consists of two detachable parts, of which one is retained by the teacher to whom the pupil goes, the other is returned to the person issuing the permit, who checks it up with her record to see that all pupils have complied with their permits.

## FORM VIII. SPECIAL PERMIT (3 × 8 INCHES)

SPECIAL PERMIT	SPECIAL PERMIT
_____ <i>is given</i>	_____ <i>reported</i>
<i>permission to go to</i> _____	<i>at</i> _____
TIME OF ISSUE _____	TIME REPORTED _____
(SIGNED) _____	(SIGNED) _____
DATE _____	DATE _____

It is necessary to keep a record of the attendance of each pupil, which is finally transcribed on his permanent-record card. Most schools find it desirable to keep in the central office a daily record of absences. For this purpose a book is sometimes used, ruled in squares, one for each day for



an entire semester or year, in which the names of the pupils of the various classes are written in alphabetical order. In this book the home-room teacher records the absences of her group at the close of the day. A file of cards suitably ruled, one for each pupil, is more convenient than a book for this purpose. Such a card is shown in Form IX.

FORM IX. ATTENDANCE RECORD (4 × 6 INCHES)

ATTENDANCE RECORD _____															HIGH SCHOOL																
PUPIL _____															FOR YEAR 192_ -192_																
- ABSENT A. M.															X ABSENT ALL DAY																
ABSENT P. M.															T TARDY																
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31
SEPT.																															
OCT.																															
NOV.																															
DEC.																															
JAN.																															
FEB.																															
MAR.																															
APR.																															
MAY																															
JUNE																															

4. **Teachers' reports.** Teachers' reports fall under two heads: reports of class marks at regular intervals, and special reports on the work, attitude, deportment, etc. of individual pupils.

It is customary in many schools, particularly in those of large enrollment, for teachers to transcribe their pupils' marks directly upon the permanent-record cards. This has the obvious advantage of reducing the amount of clerical labor required when this work is done by members of the office staff; it has equally obvious disadvantages in the inaccuracy and unattractiveness of the record cards which are almost sure to result. In point of economy the practice of

using the teacher's time to perform a routine task which could be better done by an expert clerk is of questionable value. In any case the teacher should submit at the end of each semester a report giving the names of the pupils in each class, with a record of attendance and marks and a memorandum of the content of the work covered, stated in terms of pages in textbook, amount of collateral reading, laboratory experiments, projects, etc. Such a report is of great importance, as many occasions arise later for the use of information to which the permanent-record card gives no clue. It is a good plan to use for this purpose perforated sheets, which may be assembled in loose-leaf binders during the year and later bound into a permanent volume. Material in this form is much more easily available than the permanent-record cards for the comparative study of the results of school work as revealed by class marks. Form X represents this form of report.

On the back of this sheet the following directions are given:

Give below a definite statement of the work done by this section during the semester, including textbooks used, pages covered, collateral reading required, methods employed, and any other information which may be useful as matter of permanent record.

It is not easy to describe or reduce to standard forms the various special teachers' reports which are useful in the management of a school. It is frequently desirable for an adviser or a principal to secure information from the teachers concerning an individual pupil as a basis for an interview with the pupil or for communication with his parents. Form XI has been found convenient for this purpose.

With the recognition of ethical character as one of the objectives of secondary education, the need has arisen for an analysis of the qualities which it is desirable that the school should discover and develop in its pupils. The difficulty of clear definition of standards and of measuring the

# FORM X. TEACHER'S REPORT (5 × 8 INCHES)

TEACHER'S REPORT

\_\_\_\_\_ HIGH SCHOOL

SUBJECT \_\_\_\_\_

SECTION \_\_\_\_\_

PERIOD \_\_\_\_\_

SEMESTER ENDING \_\_\_\_\_

NUMBER OF RECITATIONS PER WEEK \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_ INSTRUCTOR

	Write in alphabetical order the names of the pupils who have appeared in this section. Write the pupil's last name first.	Times Absent	Class Mark	Examination Mark	Final Mark	If a pupil has been withdrawn from this section during the semester, give date. If a pupil is conditioned, state definitely what must be done to remove the condition.
1						
2						
3						
4						
5						
6						
7						
8						
9						
10						
11						
12						
13						
14						
15						
16						
17						
18						
19						
20						
21						
22						
23						
24						
25						
26						
27						
28						
29						
30						

## DISTRIBUTION OF MARKS

	A	B	C	D	COND.	F
NUMBER OF PUPILS . . . .						
PER CENT OF PUPILS . . . .						
MEDIAN OF CLASS . . . . .						



## FORM XII. REPORT OF PUPIL'S QUALITIES (4 × 5 INCHES)

REPORT OF PUPIL'S QUALITIES _____ HIGH SCHOOL			
NAME _____			
TEACHER _____			
<i>Check in one of the blanks following each quality</i>			
QUALITY	LOW	AVERAGE	HIGH
Health and posture . . . . .			
Orderliness . . . . .			
Thrift . . . . .			
Promptness and obedience . . . .			
Clear and purposeful thinking . .			
Helpful initiative and self-reliance			
Self-control . . . . .			
Courage . . . . .			
Honesty and trustworthiness . . .			
Fair play and good sportsmanship			
Sense of civic responsibility . . .			
Refinement . . . . .			
Courtesy and consideration . . .			
Coöperativeness . . . . .			
Generosity and broad-mindedness			
Loyalty . . . . .			
Fine sense of appreciation . . . .			

description of the plan in use in this school, are fully described in *Teachers' College Record*, Vol. XX, No. 1, pp. 36-65.

5. **Permanent-achievement record.** Of all the forms used in school administration this is the most important. It



should provide a cumulative record of the achievements of the pupil throughout the entire period of his connection with the school. It should show the source from which he came to the school, his previous school record if he came from another secondary school, the date and cause of withdrawal if he does not complete the requirements for graduation, the school or college he enters or the occupation into which he goes on withdrawal or graduation, his outstanding qualities, and extra-classroom activities while a member of the school. All this information should be so recorded as to be easily intelligible whenever it is needed for filling out blanks concerning individual pupils or for comprehensive studies of the results of the work of any teacher or department or of the work of the school as a whole.

The more important items are enumerated below with some suggestions as to their possible uses:

1. *Dates of birth and of admission, withdrawal, or graduation*, for studies of elimination, retardation, and acceleration.

2. *Home address and parent's name and occupation*, for complete identification and studies of social influence of home or vocation.

3. *Name and location of elementary school from which the pupil comes*, for study of efficiency of different schools of the city.

4. *Names of secondary schools, if any, previously attended, with complete scholastic record*. These records may be entered in red ink in the places provided for the corresponding years.

5. *A complete record of the courses taken each year, with the marks secured*. All courses should be clearly designated, with the amount of credit earned in each. The teachers' records described on page 259 and illustrated in Form X will contain full details regarding number of hours and content of courses in case more detailed information is needed at any time. Scholastic achievement is usually recorded in letters or figures according to the method employed in the

individual school. The plan of using graphical representation for this purpose is being tried in a few schools; but the greater and more skilled labor required and the increased difficulty in interpretation for purposes of transcription of records make the wide use of this method unlikely. The record of scholastic achievement constitutes the larger part of the permanent-record card and the part most likely to be needed for reference at a later date. It is of the utmost importance that this record be clear and complete, and capable of exact and easy interpretation whenever the facts are needed.

6. *Results of standard tests.* The large place which tests of intelligence are coming to fill in school administration makes it necessary to provide for suitable record of their results. The uses to be made of these tests is discussed elsewhere. A word of caution is here necessary with regard to the need of avoiding publicity in the use of the results. These should be so recorded that only those may have access to them who understand their purpose and can be relied upon not to make undesirable use of the information conveyed. It is best to record them on the side of the card opposite the material of which most frequent and common use is made.

7. *Personal qualities.* Now that development of ethical character is being so much emphasized as an aim in education, some provision should be made for recording the degree in which the outstanding qualities that are desirable in good citizens are possessed by each pupil, and the progress made in the exercise or development of these qualities. But this record is made difficult by the vagueness of standards for these qualities, and the difficulty of measuring the degree of their possession and development.

8. *Social achievement.* The organization and direction of the social activities of the school are receiving increased attention. The facts regarding the degree of participation of each pupil in these forms of activity should become a part

of this record, both because of their relation to his progress in the school and because of their possible use in determining the value of these activities as a part of the preparation for subsequent success in life after school.

9. *Vocational data.* In some schools, though perhaps not in all, it will be found serviceable to record such facts as vocational preferences, part-time work outside school hours or during vacations, and the vocation followed after leaving school. A special type of record card is advisable for pupils in continuation or part-time classes.

10. *Attendance.* The record of attendance should be made in such form that the relation of attendance to achievement marks may be easily seen.

11. *Record in higher school.* A record should be kept of the college or other educational institution entered after graduation and of the results of the work in the higher institution during the first semester or year. This is of value in determining the quality of the work of the school as measured by the ability of the pupil to carry on the work of higher institutions.

12. *Rank in class.* The relative position which a pupil holds in his class at graduation, based on the average of the marks which he has received during his progress through the school, gives a valuable index of his general success in meeting the scholarship requirements of the school.

The importance of the permanent-record card, both for its current value while the pupil is a member of the school and for preserving permanent records for future reference and detailed studies of many sorts, makes necessary great care in the arrangement of the wide range of data that it contains and in the accuracy and clearness with which they are recorded. It is much better to have all this material transcribed by a skilled clerk than (as is frequently the case) by a number of teachers each of whom records the marks of her own pupils. The cards should be filed in a manner to

make them easily available when they are needed. The card of a pupil who has left school by withdrawal or graduation should be filed under a method of classification that will make possible ready reference, however long a time has elapsed since his leaving.

A simple device for purposes of identification consists in attaching to the permanent-record cards of graduates their pictures taken from the school annual. This might prove very serviceable, particularly in large schools.

The form of the permanent-record card will vary somewhat according to the organization of the school as four-year high school, as junior high school, or as senior high school. To secure sufficient space it will be necessary to use both sides of the card, reserving for the back those items least likely to be frequently used or of a nature to be kept from common knowledge. Forms XIII and XIV, which are adapted to the four-year high school, may be modified to meet the needs of other forms of organization.

6. **Health.** An examination of the blanks actually used in high schools shows very few dealing with health. It would appear that relatively little attention is given to the care and promotion of health. Wherever a health program is developed, there is need of making and preserving careful records. These would contain the record of physical examination and of medical examination (including condition of eyes, teeth, and ears), a list of diseases experienced, and corrective measures prescribed. There should also be provided space for later reports by physician, dentist, or nurse. A few schools, such as the Horace Mann Schools of Teachers College and the Laboratory Schools of The University of Chicago, have rather elaborate blanks for these purposes.

7. **Reports to parents.** The reports made to parents may be classified as (1) regular reports at stated intervals of the progress of the pupil and (2) special reports regarding irregularities of attendance or unsatisfactory work.

Reports are sent to parents at regular intervals, in some schools monthly, in others at the end of each quarter or semester. The obvious purpose of these reports is to keep the parents informed of the quality of the pupil's work and thus to provide incentive for the pupil and to secure coöperation from parents in securing the best possible results for each pupil. It is not enough that marks should be reported in figures or letters, for standards of marking are subject to such variation as to make conclusions based on these altogether unreliable. To make the report really significant each mark should be accompanied by the median or average mark of the class of which the pupil is a member. A mark of 90, or A, means little by itself; if it is accompanied by the information that the median of the class is 80, or B, it makes clear that the achievement of the pupil is well above the average of his group. This report should also contain a record of attendance for the period covered, as irregularity of attendance is a frequent explanation of poor work. We have not yet had sufficient experience in marking the possession of habits of work, attitudes, and personal qualities, or the measure of improvement in such things, to justify the recommendation that reports should include items of this sort. Sample blanks from a few schools indicate that this is being done, but they show no agreement as to the items to be included. Attention should be given to these important but as yet unmeasurable habits and qualities, and records should be kept in as reliable a manner as possible for use in dealing with individual pupils. It is questionable whether sufficient advantage would be secured to justify their inclusion in the regular reports to parents.

If these reports are to serve their purpose, it is necessary to be assured that they reach the parents. It is most difficult to be assured of this in those cases in which it is most desirable to secure the incentive for the pupil and the coöperation of parents which these reports are intended to supply. Most



# FORM XIII. FRONT SIDE OF PERMANENT-RECORD CARD (8 × 10 INCHES)

PERMANENT-RECORD CARD				HIGH SCHOOL							
(Last name)		(First name)		(Middle name)		DATE OF BIRTH					
ADDRESS						DATE ADMITTED					
PARENT'S NAME						WITHDRAWN					
PREVIOUS SCHOOL						GRADUATED					
VOCATION OF PARENT											
FIRST YEAR			SECOND YEAR			THIRD YEAR			FOURTH YEAR		
Subject	Mark	Credit	Subject	Mark	Credit	Subject	Mark	Credit	Subject	Mark	Credit
Number of days absent			Number of days absent			Number of days absent			Number of days absent		
Extra-classroom activities			Extra-classroom activities			Extra-classroom activities			Extra-classroom activities		

FORM XIV. REVERSE SIDE OF PERMANENT-RECORD CARD

STANDARD TESTS			PERSONAL QUALITIES	VOCATIONAL DATA
Name of Test	Date	Score		
				After-school or Saturday employment
				Vacation employment
				RECORD AFTER LEAVING SCHOOL
				Vocation entered
				Employer
				College entered
				Record of first year in college

schools require the return of the reports with the signatures of the parents. This requires careful checking up by school authorities and is subject to occasional fraudulent signatures. It is a common practice to send the reports to the parents by the pupils themselves; in some schools the reports are sent by mail. Whatever method is employed, situations are almost

FORM XV. SEMESTER REPORT CARD (5 × 7 INCHES)

PUPIL'S REPORT CARD _____ HIGH SCHOOL					
REPORT OF _____					
FOR THE SEMESTER ENDING _____ 192__					
SUBJECT	MARK	AVER- AGE OF CLASS	SUBJECT	MARK	AVER- AGE OF CLASS
ENGLISH			STENOGRAPHY		
LATIN			TYPEWRITING		
FRENCH			DOMESTIC SCIENCE		
SPANISH			INDUSTRIAL ARTS		
HISTORY			FINE ARTS		
MATHEMATICS			MUSIC		
SCIENCE			PHYSICAL TRAINING		
BOOKKEEPING			HYGIENE		
NUMBER OF TIMES TARDY _____					
NUMBER OF TIMES ABSENT _____					
_____ (Principal)					

sure to arise in which parents declare that they have not received the reports. In this connection school officers are often given illuminating insight into the relations of pupils with their parents or of the father and mother with each other, which gives an adequate explanation of the poor work or delinquencies of individual pupils.

The size of the report cards used in different schools varies greatly according to the manner in which the information is presented and the number of times that the same card is

used during the year. It is not necessary to have designations for the different courses offered in a single subject; for example, "Mathematics" is sufficient to include algebra, geometry, trigonometry, and the other courses offered under the general heading. A card intended to include the reports for each month during the year would, of course, be much

## FORM XVI. MONTHLY REPORT CARD (5 × 7 INCHES)

PUPIL'S REPORT CARD _____ HIGH SCHOOL												
REPORT OF _____												
FOR THE SEMESTER ENDING _____ 192__												
SUBJECT	FIRST MONTH		SECOND MONTH		THIRD MONTH		FOURTH MONTH		FIFTH MONTH		SEMESTER	
	Mark	Class Average	Mark	Class Average	Mark	Class Average	Mark	Class Average	Mark	Class Average	Mark	Class Average
ENGLISH												
LATIN												
FRENCH												
ETC.												

NUMBER OF TIMES TARDY _____
NUMBER OF TIMES ABSENT _____
_____ (Principal)

larger than one intended for a single semester. If the blank is to be used more than once, it should be printed on more durable material than if it is to be used for only a single report.

The accompanying illustrations (Forms XV and XVI) represent forms suitable for a single-semester report and for monthly reports for a semester. These forms may be varied to suit the periods for which reports are made in any school.

On the reverse side may be printed an explanation of the marks used, with suggestions regarding effective coöperation

between parents and school officers. If the card is to be returned with the signature of the parent, suitable provision may be made. The following appears on the reverse side of the report card used in the high school at Hackensack, New Jersey.

To the Parent or Guardian:

To secure the best progress of the pupil, the school and the home must work together. We shall send you a report on this card every month. Please examine each report carefully, sign it, and send it back promptly. If the report is not clear to you or if, for any reason, you wish to talk with the Principal or with a teacher about your child's work, please do not hesitate to come to see us. *You will be welcome.*

Please note that absence from school must be explained by the parent or guardian on the *first* return of the pupil.

Work missed by absence approved by the Principal may be made up with the assistance of the subject teachers.

Unexcused absence is truancy.

Time lost due to tardiness must be made up at the close of the school day.

Very few pupils can do satisfactory work without spending at least two hours in study in addition to the period assigned for study during school hours. If a pupil seems to require much less or much more than this for the preparation of his lessons, the parent is advised to notify the teacher promptly.

Going to school is a business that demands regularity and promptness; will you help us to teach your boy or girl that fact?

Special privileges have no place in a public high school, so please do not ask any.

Only through coöperation can the best results be obtained.

Yours truly,

---

Principal

I have read the foregoing statement and will coöperate with the school in the manner suggested.

Signature of parent \_\_\_\_\_

Address \_\_\_\_\_

The regular report often conveys to parents the information that the pupil is doing poor work or is failing after it is too late to apply an effective remedy. Special reports, before the



situation becomes irremediable, serve a more useful purpose. Some schools have a system by which at the close of each week teachers make individual reports of all pupils whose work has been unsatisfactory for the week. These reports are sent by mail to the parent, over the signature either of the teacher or of the principal, and the parent is asked to communicate with the teacher by an interview or otherwise in order to obtain a better understanding of the difficulty and to secure an early remedy. Such a form as the following (Form XVII), made up in pads, is useful for this purpose.

FORM XVII. SPECIAL REPORT TO PARENTS (3 × 5 INCHES)

SPECIAL REPORT	_____ HIGH SCHOOL
Dear _____	DATE _____
<p><i>I regret to advise you that _____ is not doing satisfactory work in _____. In the hope that a better understanding of the situation and fuller coöperation will enable us to find a remedy I shall be glad if you will communicate with me or, better, come to the school for a conference. I am free for such an interview on _____ at _____.</i></p> <p style="text-align: right;"><i>Yours sincerely,</i> _____</p>	

**8. Vocation.** Comparatively few schools have forms for recording vocational data. These are confined to schools situated in the larger industrial cities. In most schools such items as are thought necessary are provided for on registration cards or on the permanent record. The High School of Commerce, Springfield, Massachusetts, uses a number of cards including (1) position to be filled, (2) placement record, (3) introduction card, (4) report of store work, (5) employer's report on part-time students, (6) record of graduates (for five years). The form used for placement record in this school is given below (Form XVIII). Both sides of the form are used.

FORM XVIII. PLACEMENT RECORD, SPRINGFIELD,  
MASSACHUSETTS (4 × 6 INCHES)

**HIGH SCHOOL OF COMMERCE  
PLACEMENT RECORD**

Name	Date	
Date of Graduation	Date of Birth	
Father's Name	Occupation	
Residence	Telephone	
Member of what Church	Attend what Church	
Kind of Work Preferred		
CHARACTERISTICS (GRADE A, B, OR C)		
Appearance	Health	Courtesy
Ambition	Industry	Dependability
Initiative	Common sense	Carefulness
Absences	Tardiness	Self-reliance
Special :	(Over)	

**BUSINESS EXPERIENCE**

QUALIFICATIONS (GRADE A, B, OR C)		
Stenography	Typing	Stenciling
Figuring	Penmanship	Accounting
Filing	Tabulating	Calculating machine
English	Salesmanship	Foreign language
School activities :		
First Position :		
Name of firm		
Address of firm		
Kind of work		
Date of beginning	Salary	

9. **Supplies and equipment.** Good business management requires the use of blank forms for handling laboratory, classroom, and office supplies, for repairs, and for textbooks where these are provided for the pupil. Most of these need no description here, as they are provided through the office of the superintendent or business manager. Where textbooks are provided, the principal will need to keep an inventory of the number of copies of each book on hand and of the books which are placed in the hands of pupils. This inventory should contain space for the following items: title, author, number on hand last year; number bought, sold, discarded, lost, sent to bindery; number on hand at end of year. Pupils receiving books should give a receipt. A suitable form (Form XIX) is the following:

FORM XIX. BOOK RECEIPT (4 × 5 INCHES)

BOOK RECEIPT		_____ HIGH SCHOOL
		DATE _____
<i>I have received from the City of _____ the following books, which I promise to keep with good care and to return in satisfactory condition or to replace with new books:</i>		
TITLE	CONDITION	NUMBER OF BOOK
(SIGNED) _____		

10. **Reports to superintendent.** The compiling of reliable educational statistics has been rendered difficult because of the lack of adequate and uniform methods of recording the

facts on which the statistics are based. There is great need of agreement as to the facts that are necessary and the method by which these may best be recorded to secure the material for reliable and complete statistics from year to year. A valuable report of a committee on uniform records and reports of the National Education Association was published in 1912. The following classification of the information which should be supplied for each high school is taken from this report, which also contains blanks to be used by the principal in making report to the superintendent.

1. Enrollment and attendance.
2. Distribution of enrollment by ages and classes.
3. Source of new pupils.
4. Ages of new pupils.
5. Distribution of leavings and withdrawals by ages and classes.
6. Ages of graduates.
7. Distribution of enrollment, number leaving, withdrawals, by classes and terms.
8. Distribution of enrollment, number leaving, withdrawals, by courses and classes.
9. Distribution of withdrawals by classes, ages, courses.
10. Graduates by year in school.
11. Distribution of teachers.
12. Enrollment in studies and failures in each.

11. **Miscellaneous devices.** Examination of the office practice in a large number of schools of different sizes discloses a good many variants from the blanks discussed in this chapter as well as a considerable number which cannot be classified under the ten heads which have been employed. A complete classification would require much more space than could be used profitably in this book. Reference, however, should be made to two additional devices which have been found useful in office practice.

*The office tickler.* Many matters demand the attention of the principal at regular intervals, some each month, some each semester, and others only once a year. It is important

that he should attend to these seasonal duties at exactly the right time if he is to avoid the embarrassment of overlooking some of them or the necessity for working overtime to make up for his lack of system. A good plan is to keep a convenient file of such items as the dates for beginning schedule-making, for the appointment of various committees, for reports to the superintendent, and for numberless other similar matters. These reminders may be kept on cards in a filing case, arranged by months, or they may be placed in folders similarly arranged. If the principal has a well-trained secretary, she may be assigned the duty of placing in his hands at the beginning of each month a memorandum of the special duties for that month. In some form or other the office tickler is a necessity for the principal who wishes to maintain a composed spirit and to deserve the reputation of being an efficient administrator.

*Scrapbook.* A scrapbook in which are placed copies of blank forms and all printed documents relating to the school is a very convenient means of preserving much material which would otherwise be lost or would accumulate in such a way as to clutter up an office and become not easily available. Much other material, such as newspaper clippings, may thus be preserved; sooner or later it may be found useful.

**Summary.** A well-administered school requires a system of blanks to secure in convenient form the information which is necessary for its temporary routine and permanent records. The number and character of these forms will vary according to the size and other conditions of the school. Each blank should make provision for all necessary information and no other. The size and shape should depend upon the use which each blank serves, though uniformity is desirable so far as it is consistent with use. An effective system of filing should be employed, avoiding the easy tendency to waste time and space in preserving material after it is of no further use. The filing case may be an index of inefficiency.



## PROBLEMS AND QUESTIONS

1. What other blanks besides those described in this chapter have you found useful?
2. Is it necessary to file all the principal's correspondence? If not, what shall he throw away?
3. Is it necessary for the principal to preserve copies of all his letters? If not, how shall he determine of which ones to retain copies?
4. Give examples of items of information which should be found on more than one card. Justify the repetition.
5. Some principals keep a file of envelopes or folders, one for each pupil, in which are preserved a great variety of material during the pupil's continuance in the school. Comment on this.
6. What other items might properly be included in the registration card in addition to those mentioned? What purpose would each serve?
7. Make a sketch of a personnel card for teachers employed in a high school.
8. Suggest ways of diminishing the labor of individual teachers and attendance officers involved in the methods described in this chapter.
9. What is the reason for placing the attendance and extra-classroom activities records as in the permanent-record card in Form XIII?

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## CHAPTER XV

### THE MARKING SYSTEM

A great deal of time and labor is expended by high-school teachers in marking the work of pupils from day to day and in making up their reports at stated monthly, quarterly, or half-yearly intervals. To this must be added the very considerable labor performed by the principal, teachers, or clerks in transferring these reports to the permanent records of the school. When we consider the limited use that is made of these records and the small degree of reliability secured, it is safe to say that the value of the results is in no way commensurate with the labor involved. In general, very little use has been made of these records except for determining promotion or for assigning a small number of honors and distinctions, regarding which there is not infrequently grave doubt as to whether the choice has fallen in the proper place.

**Variability of marks.** Many studies indicate the absence of any uniformity of standard by which we may compare the marks in college and high school, in different high schools, in different departments within the same school, and even in the records of different teachers within the same department.

Kelly found that the difference in standards between high schools is such that, measured by the achievement of pupils in later school work, a mark of 70 in one school represents higher accomplishment than a mark of 81 in another school having the same passing mark.

The degree of variability in the distribution of marks by departments in the University of Chicago High School for the year 1908-1909 is shown in Table XI.

TABLE XI. DISTRIBUTION OF MARKS IN THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO HIGH SCHOOL FOR 1908-1909

DEPARTMENT	NUMBER OF MARKS	F		D		C		B		A	
		NUMBER	PERCENT-AGE	NUMBER	PERCENT-AGE	NUMBER	PERCENT-AGE	NUMBER	PERCENT-AGE	NUMBER	PERCENT-AGE
Latin and Greek . . .	886	94	10.6	143	16.1	282	31.8	208	23.5	159	17.9
German . . . . .	416	35	8.4	81	19.5	110	26.4	119	28.6	71	17.1
French . . . . .	475	52	10.9	89	18.7	157	33.0	133	28.0	44	9.3
English . . . . .	1514	235	15.5	329	21.7	497	32.8	354	23.4	99	6.5
History . . . . .	825	67	8.1	131	15.9	258	31.2	248	30.0	121	14.7
Mathematics . . . . .	1466	212	14.5	370	25.2	405	27.6	310	21.1	169	11.5
Science . . . . .	672	56	8.3	113	16.8	186	27.7	219	32.6	98	14.6
Shop and drawing . . .	867	76	8.8	122	14.1	289	33.3	287	33.1	93	10.7
Domestic science . . .	176	10	5.7	4	2.3	48	27.3	91	51.7	23	13.1
<i>Total</i> . . . . .	7297	837	11.5	1382	18.9	2232	30.6	1969	27.0	877	12.0

From this table it will be observed that the percentage of failing marks in English was approximately three times as great as in domestic science, and the percentage of A marks in Latin and Greek was about three times as great as in English.

The marks of individual teachers showed much wider variation. The distribution of marks of two teachers in the same department, expressed in percentages, was as follows:

	F	D	C	B	A
First teacher . . . . .	7.5	15.7	47.3	22.3	7.2
Second teacher . . . . .	4.5	5.7	23.8	30.3	35.7

The marks of two teachers in different departments revealed even wider variations, as shown in the following table:

	F	D	C	B	A
First teacher . . . . .	26.6	41.6	25.5	4.7	1.6
Second teacher . . . . .	4.5	5.7	23.8	30.3	35.7

The extent of these variations in marks is shown more vividly in the graphical representations in Figs. 2 and 3. In these graphs the dotted lines indicate the average distribution of marks of all the teachers in the school.

There are valid reasons for a certain amount of variation in the marks of different teachers, even in a carefully standardized system of marking. These reasons will be discussed later in this chapter. It is not probable, however, that such variations as those shown above would ever be justifiable in the marks of individual teachers or departments. A study of the marks given in any school in which no effort had been made to secure uniformity of standard would probably reveal as wide variations as were found in the University of Chicago High School.

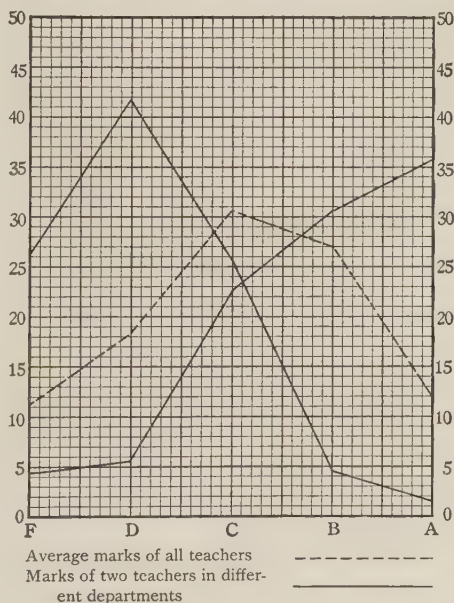


FIG. 2

The investigations of Starch and Elliott show that teachers differ to a surprising degree in marking the same pieces of work in terms of the ordinary percentage scale. A final examination paper in first-year high-school English was marked by 142 teachers of English in as many schools, a final examination in geometry was marked by 118 teachers of mathematics, and a final examination in American history was marked by 70 teachers of history. The marks given to the English paper vary from 50 to 98, to the geometry paper from 28 to 92, and

to the history paper from 43 to 90. The fact that the widest variation was shown in the marks assigned to the geometry paper is particularly notable, for it is usually assumed that papers in mathematics can be marked with great exactness. The distribution of marks is shown graphically in the accompanying figures (4, 5, 6) taken from Starch's "Educational

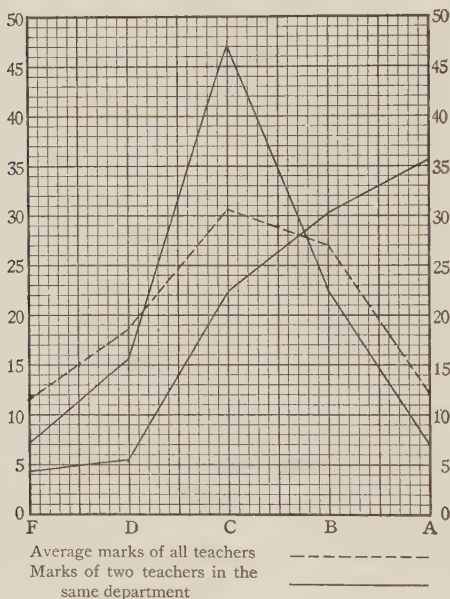


FIG. 3

Psychology," p. 434.

**The purpose of marks.** Marks serve three purposes:

1. To acquaint the pupil and his parents from time to time with the degree of success with which the pupil is meeting the standards of accomplishment set up in the various subjects.

2. To secure a permanent record of the pupil's progress for use in determining promotion and for various other administrative ends while the pupil

is a member of the school, and for transcription in case of transfer to another secondary school or of entrance, on graduation, to a higher institution of learning.

3. To provide material for studies of the efficiency of teachers, of departments, or of the school as a whole.

**What marks represent.** The wide variation in marks, either for a semester's work or for a single paper, cannot be due to the varying ability of teachers to recognize differences in specific qualities of merit. The explanation must be found,



in large measure, in the qualities themselves and the relative value assigned to each in forming the judgment which the marks represent. If a group of teachers selected at random or

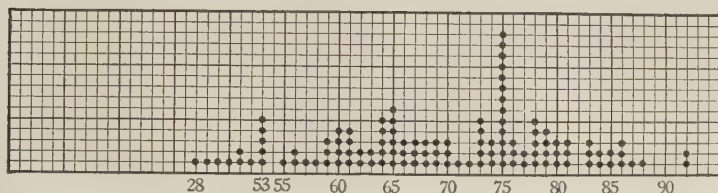


FIG. 4. Marks assigned by 114 mathematics teachers to a final examination paper in geometry. (After Starch and Elliott, 1913)<sup>1</sup>

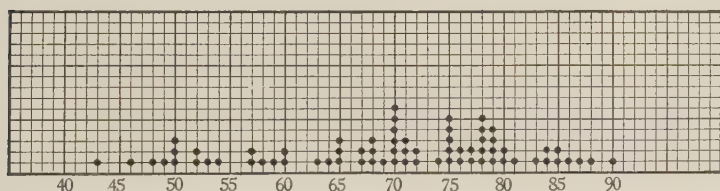


FIG. 5. Marks assigned by 70 history teachers to a final examination paper in American history. (After Starch and Elliott, 1913)<sup>1</sup>

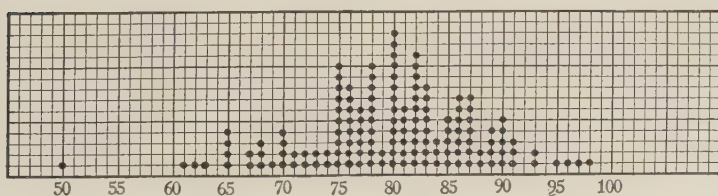


FIG. 6. Marks assigned by 142 English teachers to a final examination paper in first-year high-school English. (After Starch and Elliott, 1912)<sup>1</sup>

even from the same school were asked to state the specific elements on which they base their marks, the range of the replies would be surprising. A graduate class in high-school administration, composed of principals and experienced teachers, was

<sup>1</sup>From Starch, *Educational Psychology*. Reprinted by permission of The Macmillan Company, publishers.

asked to report the items which they considered as a basis for assigning semester marks. The faces of the members of the class, when the assignment was given, gave unmistakable evidence that most of them did not know on what they based their marks. Forty-three individuals reported more than seventy-five items. By combining some of these which obviously referred to the same qualities the items have been reduced to forty-nine, as shown in Table XII.

TABLE XII. WHAT FORTY-THREE PRINCIPALS AND TEACHERS USE AS A BASIS FOR MARKING PUPILS

	NUMBER REPORTING		NUMBER REPORTING
Achievement . . . . .	28	Reaction, or moral effort . . .	1
Effort, application . . . . .	25	Imagination . . . . .	1
Attitude, interest . . . . .	18	Coöperation . . . . .	1
General ability . . . . .	8	Use of leisure . . . . .	1
Reproduction of facts . . . . .	9	Citizenship . . . . .	1
Improvement, progress . . . . .	7	Determination . . . . .	1
Conduct in class . . . . .	6	Cleanliness . . . . .	1
Result of the examinations . . .	6	Efficiency . . . . .	1
Originality . . . . .	4	Rank . . . . .	1
Carefulness . . . . .	4	Quality of recitation . . . . .	1
Ability to apply knowledge . . .	3	Written work . . . . .	1
Relative position in class . . .	3	Relative class activity . . . . .	1
Neatness . . . . .	3	Preparation . . . . .	1
Ability to use good English . . .	3	Pronunciation . . . . .	1
Habits of work . . . . .	3	Ability to read . . . . .	1
Clarity of expression . . . . .	2	Ability to reproduce . . . . .	1
Initiative . . . . .	2	General development . . . . .	1
Accuracy . . . . .	2	Outside subject . . . . .	1
Reasoning power . . . . .	2	Attention . . . . .	1
Scholarship . . . . .	2	General school attitude . . . .	1
Attendance . . . . .	2	Social attitudes . . . . .	1
Judgment of pupil's work as a whole . . . . .	2	Per cent of class work correct .	1
Understanding of subject . . . .	2	Individual peculiarities; for example, nervousness, mal- nutrition . . . . .	1
Home environment . . . . .	1	Proficiency in subject . . . . .	1
Health . . . . .	1		

An examination of the table calls attention to the following facts:

1. Lack of agreement among a wide range of qualities. An average of four items per teacher includes only two qualities mentioned by more than half of those reporting. Two only gave achievement as the single basis of their marks.

2. The indefiniteness of many of the items, indicating a vagueness in the mind of the teacher altogether inconsistent with the definiteness of the resulting mark.

3. A confusion between results as represented by achievement, or the ability to apply knowledge, and the means by which results are secured, such as effort and good habits of work.

4. The inclusion of such items as conduct and attendance, which are only indirectly related to classroom achievement and should not, by themselves, be taken into account in determining final marks.

5. The inclusion of certain other items, such as use of leisure, cleanliness, citizenship, which, so far as their meaning may be inferred, have no justification in themselves as a basis for assigning marks.

The whole situation would be greatly clarified if achievement were made the sole basis for marks. By achievement should be meant the ability to apply the knowledge of facts and principles and the skills acquired to problems appropriate to the subject under consideration. The other items are subsidiary to this, having to do either with habits, abilities, or attitudes which result in a higher or lower degree of achievement or with the methods of determining achievement. To the former belong such qualities as effort, interest, general ability, conduct, initiative, coöperation, and the like; to the latter belong results of tests and examinations, written work, etc. Making achievement the sole basis of marks should not minimize in the minds either of pupils or of teachers the importance of those habits and attitudes which are such desirable outcomes

of school training. If their relation to successful achievement is clearly thought out and emphasized in the classroom, they are the more likely to become habitual. Classroom teaching should secure such a balance between the acquisition of information and skill and their application to the solution of problems as will result in the highest possible achievement. The resulting mark should be based upon the degree of achievement as shown in classroom work, in the preparation of assigned tasks, and in tests and examinations.

Whether or not an individual pupil shall be promoted depends upon the standards of mastery required, these standards to be determined by the individual teacher or department or by the general practice of the school. In courses which are to be followed by others in the same subject, the standard for promotion cannot be lower than the degree of achievement necessary for doing the work which is to follow. In required courses which are not to be followed by further work in the same subject, some schools give credit to pupils whose effort has been commendable, even though their accomplishment has been somewhat below that necessary for higher courses in the subject.

It may be urged that marking solely upon achievement will lead to the discouragement of pupils of low ability whose effort has been greater than that of other pupils who have been able to secure better results. If effort is to count as a factor in marking, consistency requires not only that the mark be raised for a high degree of effort, but that there be a corresponding diminution for lack of effort. Next to native ability, effort is the most important requisite for accomplishment. To assign a mark in which weight is given both to achievement and to effort is, in effect, to mark the latter quality twice. Rather than to introduce this confusion it would be much better to record in some special manner the quality of effort and to recognize its significance in reports to pupils and parents.

It is important that a clear statement be made of the meaning of the marks used, not only for the purpose of setting up definite standards for teachers, but to assure an understanding of the meaning of reports by pupils and parents. The monthly report card of the Silver Bay School contains the following definitions of the meaning of the marks employed:

"A" indicates work very superior in quality and quantity, accomplished with enthusiasm and with little help from the teacher. The pupil shows initiative, skill, and thoroughness, and is able to apply the knowledge gained to new situations.

"B" indicates work superior to the average. The pupil exercises less initiative, skill, and thoroughness, and needs more assistance from the teacher than the pupil of "A" grade.

"C" indicates average accomplishment.

"D" indicates work inferior to the average in quantity, skill, and thoroughness. The pupil lacks initiative and a sense of responsibility, and requires close guidance and frequent stimulation.

"E" indicates work very inferior in thought processes, skill, thoroughness, and progress made. It may indicate a serious lack of effort and concentration.

"F" indicates failure.

"Inc" indicates incomplete work due to illness or legitimate absence. It is a temporary grade and may be made up. A grade of "Inc" reverts to failure unless made up.

A grade of "D" or "E" is not satisfactory. It may be raised to "C" by additional study and by passing an examination.

**Achievement quotient.** With the rapidly extending use of standard tests for measuring mental ability, a new type of mark has been proposed, which shows the ratio between achievement and ability. This is expressed in the formula  $AQ = EQ/IQ$ , in which  $EQ$ , the educational quotient, represents the pupil's achievement in a given subject, which, divided by  $IQ$ , the intelligence quotient, gives the ratio of achievement to ability. If a pupil's achievement in a subject corresponds to his ability, his  $AQ$  would be 1 or 100. If his achievement were higher than his mental ability, his achievement quotient would be correspondingly greater than 1 or 100;



if the achievement were lower than his mental ability, his achievement quotient would be below 1 or 100.

Theoretically this is a very desirable method of marking, since it takes into account such desirable qualities as industry, persistence, etc., but its practical use is at present doubtful because of the lack of reliable measuring devices. The development of standardized subject-matter tests may make this method of marking sufficiently reliable for substitution for the present methods, which also are certainly open to objections because of their unreliability. Some schools are already using this method of marking (for example, the Huntington School in Boston), but there is need of much experiment before it can be recommended for general use.

For present purposes it is possible to use this plan as an additional method by arranging the names of a class in the order of their ability and also in the order of their achievement in the subject. These can then be divided into five groups of equal number. If a pupil falls in the same group in both achievement and ability, his achievement quotient will be 100; if he falls in two different groups, his achievement quotient will be above or below 100, as his achievement is higher or lower than his ability.

**Distribution of marks.** What we call chance is controlled by inevitable law. If we toss six pennies in the air a hundred times and count the number of heads up each time, it is probable that the number of times no heads and six heads are up will be very few and approximately equal, that the number of times one head and five heads are up will be greater and also approximately equal, and that the number of times three heads are up will be greater than any other combination. If we extend the number of tossings to a thousand, the results would be almost certain to fall in this manner. In statistical studies this fact is represented by a mathematical curve, variously designated as the probability curve, the

normal-distribution curve, or the surface of frequency. This familiar curve is represented in Fig. 7.

This curve has been found by many investigations to apply to the distribution of a large number of biological traits and may be assumed to apply to all. Investigations of the distribution of mental abilities show that it also applies to a large number of specific mental traits, and it may also be assumed that it applies to all equally in this field. Figs. 8 and 9, taken from Thorndike, show the distribution of two psychological traits, conforming closely to the theoretical curve.



FIG. 7. The probability curve

It may be assumed that both mental ability and school marks should conform rather closely to the curve of normal



FIG. 8. Memory span for digits in 129 women students



FIG. 9. Reaction times of 252 college freshmen

Graphs showing general type of distribution of simple mental abilities of mature students. (After Thorndike)

distribution. The variation in the marks assigned to the same papers by different teachers might suggest that this is due to the fundamental law governing chance distribution rather than to the relation between mental ability and teachers' marks. It will be observed that the distribution of marks

as shown in Figs. 4-6, especially in the case of the English paper, approximates the normal curve. Studies of school marks show that their distribution does tend to conform to the curve of normal distribution. In spite of the wide variation between departments shown in the table on page 280, the distribution of the total of 7297 marks, as represented by the graph shown in Fig. 10, is a rather close approximation to the normal curve.

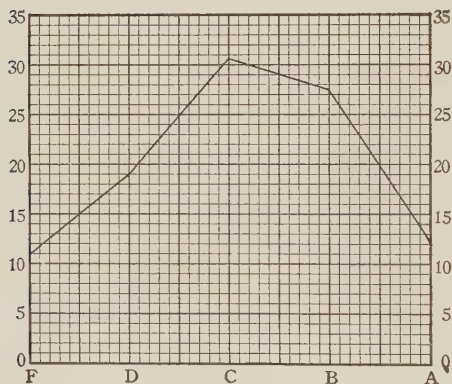


FIG. 10. Distribution of 7297 semester marks in the University of Chicago High School

This curve, it will be noted, is skewed somewhat toward the right, showing a tendency to give more high marks than would be allowed by an exact compliance with the theoretical curve. It may be urged that this is to be expected. The law of chance distribution assumes that the ele-

ment of selection does not enter. As applied to pupils' marks it would assume that a school is made up of chance specimens of children without selection. This assumption does not hold, at least above the elementary school. Studies of elimination show that pupils receiving low marks are more likely to drop out of school than those receiving high marks. With respect to the effect which this selection produces in the distribution<sup>1</sup> of marks Starch observes:<sup>1</sup>

The fact . . . seems to be that the selection which does take place is not of the sort that materially modifies the form of the distribution curve, but rather tends to contract its base. The selection that does

<sup>1</sup> From Starch, *Educational Psychology*. Reprinted by permission of The Macmillan Company, publishers.

take place is not an abrupt cutting off, but a gradual slicing off along a large share of the distribution surface.

For practical administrative purposes, then, the curve of normal distribution may be assumed to apply to high-school marks. The question arises as to the minimum number of cases in which this requirement may properly be made. In a single class of ordinary size it is not to be expected that the distribution should be that of the normal curve; but if, as is usually the case, a teacher has as many as a hundred pupils, the marks given to her classes combined should conform rather closely to the normal curve. Exceptions may occur in which the element of selection enters in; for example, a teacher whose classes include the more advanced courses in foreign language, mathematics, and some other subjects should have fewer failures and more high marks than one who teaches introductory courses, particularly in required subjects. In case of wide variation the teacher should be expected to make specific explanation of the departure of her marks from the normal distribution. With respect to marks given by an entire department there would seem to be no adequate explanation of such variation.

Teachers should make a summary of their marks for each class, showing both the number and the percentage assigned to each step (the suggested blank for teachers' semester reports on page 260 makes provision for these items). They should also make a similar summary of the marks of all their classes combined. Each department should also summarize the marks given by all the teachers in the department.

At this point it should be said that in a well-organized school there should be a diminishing number of failures each year in the subjects which represent a continuation of the work of previous courses. The graph in Fig. 11 represents the percentages of failures in the successive years in the University of Chicago High School in Latin, German, French, English, and mathematics for the year 1907-1908. It will be

noted that in Latin, German, and French the percentage of failures decreases rapidly from year to year, reaching zero in German in the third year and in Latin in the fourth year, whereas the percentage of failure in mathematics is almost uniformly high for the first three years and in English the percentage of failure in the third and fourth years is extremely high. Without going into detail it may be said that the facts

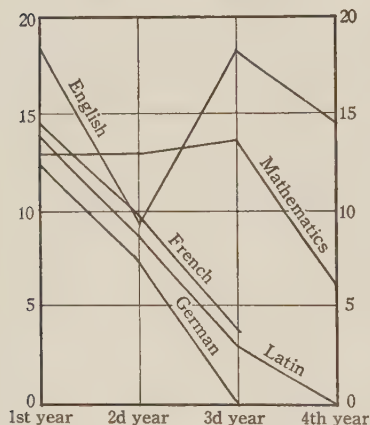


FIG. 11. Percentage of failures by years in mathematics, English, Latin, German, and French in the University of Chicago High School

disclosed by this graph reveal the need for careful investigation and probable readjustment of curriculum and methods in the departments of mathematics and English. The fact that at the time when these marks were given English was a required subject for four years and that mathematics was required for two years might be expected to cause a difference in the percentage of failures in these subjects as compared with foreign language, which was elective after the first year. This, however, could

not be regarded as an adequate explanation of the wide variation which was found to exist.

**The marking scale.** In the application of the normal-frequency curve to school marks we need to consider two points: (1) the number of units or steps to be used in the marking scale and (2) the percentage of marks to be assigned to each unit.

It has been customary in many schools to have as many steps as there are successive numbers between the passing mark and 100. For example, if the passing mark is 75, there



would be twenty-six steps: 75, 76, 77, 78, and so on, up to 100. School records sometimes reveal the attempt to draw even finer distinctions with the use of half-steps; for example, 84.5. ~~The use of a~~ scale with so many steps assumes an ability to distinguish minute differences which teachers do not possess. Psychologists generally follow the principle that a difference which can be correctly distinguished by 75 per cent of the judges is the smallest unit which can reasonably be used. It has been shown experimentally that teachers cannot distinguish accurately differences so small as are implied in a scale of twenty-six steps. It is doubtful if differences smaller than five points can be distinguished with certainty by the ordinary run of teachers. This would give a scale of seven steps if the passing mark is 75 (failure, 75, 80, 85, 90, 95, 100). A scale of five steps is perhaps better, in which the interval between the separate steps would depend upon the location of the passing mark; in any case there should be an uneven number of steps. The steps may be indicated by figures or by letters; for example, A, B, C, D, E (or F). The use of such words as "excellent," "good," "inferior," and the like are less desirable because of their less definite connotation.

The percentage of marks to be assigned to each step would, of course, depend upon the number of steps employed in the scale. Starch computes the percentages on a five-step scale, with passing mark 75, as follows:

- A (93-100), 7 per cent
- B (85-92), 24 per cent
- C (77-84), 38 per cent
- D (70-76), 24 per cent
- E (60-69), 7 per cent

Parker suggests the following as a rough basis of distribution:

- |                |                |
|----------------|----------------|
| A, 3 per cent  | C, 50 per cent |
| B, 22 per cent | D, 22 per cent |
| E, 3 per cent  |                |

Another rough approximation to the normal curve is:

A, 10 per cent	C, 40 per cent
B, 20 per cent	D, 20 per cent
E, 10 per cent	

For practical application in school procedure it may be close enough to say that from 3 to 10 per cent should fall in the extreme groups and from 40 to 55 per cent in the middle.

Whatever is decided upon as the percentage to be assigned to each step, individual teachers with a hundred or more pupils should be expected to make their marks conform approximately to the standard. Starch suggests that the deviation at each step should not exceed 25 per cent above or below the percentage of marks assigned to that step; for example, in his five-point scale A marks should fall between 5 and 9 per cent, B between 18 and 30 per cent, C between 28 and 48 per cent, D between 18 and 30 per cent, and E between 5 and 9 per cent. Wider variations than this, as previously indicated, might be adequately explained, but it should be understood that teachers are under obligation to give satisfactory reasons for such divergence.

Teachers will often be found to protest against such a requirement of uniformity in marks as too mechanical or even as unjust to themselves or their pupils. This attitude is usually due to their lack of familiarity with the use of scales and the principles governing the facts of distribution, or to their unwillingness to depart from a practice to which long use or temperamental qualities have made them accustomed. Firmness, combined with tact in administration, should convince them that in the interest of all concerned a standard method of procedure, supported by scientific practice, is preferable to the haphazard method which has prevailed in most schools.

An apparent element of difficulty arises when pupils are segregated in sections on the basis of ability. With such selection the marks in the different groups, if given with reference to absolute standards of achievement, could not be

expected to conform to a scheme of distribution based on chance selection. The difficulty can be met in two ways. Marks may be assigned to the pupils in each group relatively to the achievement of the members of the group itself. There would thus be a distribution of high and low marks in each group, but a high mark in an accelerated group would not mean the same in actual achievement as the same mark in a retarded group. In the records of the school a distinction could be made by adding an index number; for example,  $A_1$  would mean a mark of A in an accelerated group, and  $A_3$  would indicate a mark of A in a retarded group. Another method employed is to fix the median mark in each differentiated group at a different level and to assign marks with reference to this. Thus, in three groups of varying ability the median of the highest group might be A, of the middle group B, and of the lowest group C.

**The assignment of individual marks.** In order to secure a proper distribution of marks it is necessary for the teacher to understand that the standard set up by the laws controlling normal distribution are more binding than any subjective standards of individual teachers regarding the amount or quality of achievement in a particular course. In an examination the results often show that the teacher was unable to judge the capacity of a class to reach an expected standard of attainment. It is not uncommon for teachers to take apparent satisfaction in reporting to a class that a large percentage have failed to pass. Deliberately to set an examination paper which is beyond the ability of a considerable number is an extremely doubtful form of incentive to better work. To assign to a large number marks of failure on an examination which the teacher has judged to be within the scope of the class reveals either poor teaching or poor judgment on her part. The best method is to arrange the papers in order of merit and to assign marks in accordance with the frequency curve. The absolute quality of a paper should

have far less weight in determining the mark to be assigned than its relative excellence as one of a group. The remedy to be applied when the results of an examination are unsatisfactory lies in the direction of a modification in the amount or character of the material of instruction or in an improvement in the methods of teaching.

The assignment of marks for monthly or semester reports should be made in the same manner. Various elements, differing in different subjects, enter into the marks. It is customary to distinguish between the marks for daily class work and examinations, usually assigning a definite value to each. The proportion of one to two is frequently employed, in which twice the mark for daily work is added to the examination mark, and the final mark is secured by dividing the sum by three. Other proportions are employed, giving greater or less weight to the examination mark. The relative values to be given to varying elements in the daily work, such as laboratory work, themes, and other written work, complicate still further the assignment of definite marks. What weight should be given to each of these elements entering into a final mark cannot be stated in a definite and arbitrary manner. Reflection upon the complicated elements which are involved should cause the teacher to feel that her final marks fall far short of infallibility. The final mark, at best, should indicate the teacher's judgment not so much of what a pupil has been able to do as what he can do at the time the mark is given. This statement is not intended to minimize the importance of assigned tasks satisfactorily performed during the weeks of class instruction, for of course what a pupil can do depends in large degree upon the punctual and successful accomplishment of tasks assigned. When final marks have been tentatively made they should be arranged in order, and the final marks to be recorded should be decided upon in conformity with the requirements of the curve of normal distribution, subject to the variations previously discussed.

**Varying credit based on quality of work.** Closely related to the marking of pupils' achievements is the practice employed in a considerable number of schools of assigning varying amounts of credit on the basis of marks secured, frequently referred to as the credit-for-quality plan. This method gives an excess of credit for work above a certain mark, and a corresponding deduction for work below this mark.

The plan has been used for some time in a number of institutions above the high school. At Columbia any student who receives no mark lower than B in any half-year receives one point of extra credit for every two A's up to a maximum of three points for extra credit in any half-year. No student may receive points toward his degree for more than one course in any half-year in which he receives a mark of D. At the University of Missouri the students are given relative marks. Approximately 50 per cent of the students in all classes receive the mark M (mediocre). Above and below this group are groups comprising 25 per cent each: on the one hand the excellent students, and on the other hand the inferior students. Each of these groups is again divided into two relative groups. Students marked M receive normal credit; those marked S (superior) receive 15 per cent additional credit; those marked E (excellent) receive 30 per cent additional credit; those marked I (inferior) receive only 85 per cent of the normal credit; and those marked F (failure) get no credit at all. The University of Chicago uses in its system of grade points a modified form of this plan, assigning a certain number of points varying from 6 for the highest mark to - 4 for failure and requiring a total of 72 points for a degree. This makes it necessary to secure an average of 2 grade points for each of the 36 majors required for a degree. This system differs from those of Columbia and Missouri in that it is not possible to reduce the number of courses required for graduation by work of higher quality than that giving 2 grade points.



This method of giving excess or diminished credit for work passed with varying marks has been in use for some time in high schools, particularly in the Middle West. The system employed for several years in the University of Chicago High School gave credit as follows:

A + (95), 1.25 units	C + (75), 1.00 unit
A (90), 1.20 units	C (70), 0.95 unit
B + (85), 1.15 units	D + (65), 0.90 unit
B (80), 1.10 units	D (60), 0.85 unit

There were various restrictions as to the number of courses to be taken at one time and the relative amounts of extra credit which could be secured in different years.

The plan in this school was devised to meet two distinct aims. The first aim was to give incentive for a high quality of achievement by offering a substantial reward, open on equal terms to all, for work of a quality above what had been found in practice to be the median standard of attainment in the school, as well as by inflicting a penalty, on the same terms, for work falling below this standard. Under this plan it became possible for a pupil to complete the requirements for graduation in three years by securing the highest mark in all subjects during this period. A well-organized curriculum was assured by the requirement that for graduation each pupil had to complete two major sequences of three years each in two subjects (one of which was English), two minor sequences of two years in each of two other subjects, and one year in each of two other subjects; the other units could be selected to meet the needs of the individual pupil. With the efficient habits of work assured by completing such a curriculum with high marks, no one will seriously doubt that at the end of three or three and a half years a pupil is better prepared for taking up successfully the work of a higher institution or for active participation in work outside the school than if he had taken a larger number of courses at a lower level of accomplishment during a longer period.

The second aim was to limit the number of courses to be taken at one time to those which a pupil could carry at a high level of achievement. The tendency of pupils to undertake to carry an excessive number of courses greatly lowers the efficiency of classroom work both as regards quantity and quality of achievement. It is of course possible and highly desirable for some pupils to accomplish more than the normal amount of work. The method of controlling the amount of work in the system of varying credit here described made the taking of more than four unit subjects at one time a privilege to be earned. Such a restriction is not confined to the use of the method of varying credit and should form a part of the procedure of every well-administered school.

Several objections have been urged to the varying credit plan. It has been said that it sets up a vicious artificial incentive. If the end sought is open to all on the same basis and is secured by any considerable number, the methods cannot properly be called vicious or artificial. At Missouri, after the system had been employed for seven years, 6 per cent had graduated after seven semesters, 58 per cent after the normal period of eight semesters, and 36 per cent after nine or more semesters. It would appear from such evidence that the penalty is the more effective part of the system. In the high schools which have employed the system there is lacking any exact evidence to determine the extent to which it serves as an incentive to better work. It is the expressed judgment of the faculties in several schools that it has stimulated greater interest in scholarship on the part of pupils. It is certain that at the University of Chicago High School the quality of work, as tested by the ability of a large number of graduates to meet the requirements of college classrooms, showed considerable improvement during the years in which this plan was in operation. This is not conclusive evidence, however, since the improvement might have been due to other causes operative at the same time.

The University of Chicago has undertaken to admit pupils from a limited number of schools on the basis of units of credit assigned in this manner. No material has been published to show whether this interesting acceptance of the validity of the plan has been justified by experience.

A more serious objection to the plan is found in the variability of the marks of different teachers and schools, which was discussed at an earlier point in this chapter. Without effective steps to assure uniformity of standards of marking within a school, the amount of credit which a pupil would receive under this system would depend upon chance or upon the skill shown by individual pupils in selecting courses or teachers with a tendency to give high marks. It is possible for any school to secure such uniformity in marking as will assure a just award of excess credit for high marks or of penalty for low marks.

It may be urged that too much emphasis has always been given, both by pupils and teachers, to marks, and that any system which tends to increase this emphasis is undesirable. If we grant, as seems necessary, that marks are to be given in some form, it may properly be claimed on behalf of marks which represent, with approach to exactness, differences in actual achievement, that such marks furnish a rational incentive to worthy effort. In most schools certain distinctions for marks are awarded on a competitive basis. Rewards of the tangible sort provided by the varying-credit system, open to all on even terms, place distinctions for good scholarship on a much higher social plane. There is no distinction of winner and loser, but each may win the same amount as any other.

Since detailed reference has been made to the method used in the University of Chicago High School during a part of the period of the author's principalship, a statement should be made of the change since adopted in the marking system and of the plan now in use in the school. Under the present system only two marks are recognized in the work of each

course, one for failure and one for mastery.<sup>1</sup> The minimum essentials of each course are carefully set up and divided into appropriate units of work; the complete mastery of each of these is required of the group before proceeding to the next unit. Mastery of these essentials gives credit for the course; less than complete mastery gives no credit at all. For the pupils of superior ability who complete these separate units in less time than is required for other members of the group, definite pieces of additional work are provided which may be begun and completed at any time. This method does away with the assignment of diminished credit for work below a certain level and sets up definite standards of attainment in excess of the minimum requirement.

**Summary.** To assure the use of a marking system which shall serve the purposes set forth earlier in this chapter — namely, to acquaint the pupil and his parents with the degree of success with which his education is proceeding, to furnish a reliable basis for dealing with the pupil as he progresses through the school or enters another school, and to provide material for the scientific study of the efficiency of the school — is an administrative problem of great importance for the principal. It requires the change of deep-seated habits of teachers. A good method of procedure is to assign to a committee an investigation of the present practice, to be followed by faculty discussion from which should develop a plan for more consistent practice. Thereafter statistical and graphical representation of the marks of each teacher and department should be placed before the faculty at the end of each semester for the purpose of showing clearly how the plan is operating and of securing its further improvement.

<sup>1</sup>In a series of three articles in *School Review*, Henry C. Morrison, who is in charge of the Laboratory Schools of the School of Education, The University of Chicago, has discussed the aims and methods involved in this change. The reader is urged to read these articles on "Studies in High-School Procedure," in *School Review*, Vol. XXIX (1921), pp. 19-30, 106-118, 182-197.

## PROBLEMS AND QUESTIONS

1. Tabulate the semester marks of three or more teachers and graph the distribution of each in percentages.
2. What procedure would you suggest for the principal in light of the situation revealed in Fig. 11, p. 292?
3. What should the principal do in the case of two teachers whose marks show the variations shown in Fig. 2, p. 281?
4. If a teacher rates the same paper at an interval of several weeks, is he likely to assign the same mark? Is there any evidence of this?
5. What other valid reason for variation of marks from the normal distribution can you give in addition to those mentioned in this chapter?
6. Why should the marking scale contain an odd number of steps?
7. What administrative difficulties are involved in assigning only two marks, passed and failed?
8. It is sometimes said that the failure of a pupil is a failure of the school. In what respects, if any, is this not true?
9. To whom and for what reasons may the cause of failure of a pupil be assigned?
10. What difficulties in administration may result from the plan of varying credit?

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## CHAPTER XVI

### THE HIGH-SCHOOL LIBRARY

The complete lack or the meagerness of space suitable for library purposes in the great majority of our high-school buildings reveals a striking failure to appreciate the important part which the school library should have in high-school education. The tendency to limit the pupils' use of books to the prescribed texts and a few books of general reference, and the failure to teach how to use even these effectively, give little assurance that after pupils leave school they will know where to find or how to select and use good books or will have useful habits of reading either for enjoyment or for the practical purposes of life.

In the generous provision which is being made for equipment to meet the broadening aims of the school, the library should claim a large share. Properly conceived, it is the correlating center of the school's activities. Not only should it contribute directly to the effectiveness of instruction in each subject by providing in accessible form an abundance of supplementary material, but it should also train pupils how to use books effectively, a training which most pupils have failed to receive either because teachers have not recognized its importance or because they have been unable to give the needed instruction. In addition to its service in the field of classroom instruction, the library may be made a center in which much of the life of the school outside the classroom may find its motive and control. The modern principal must cease to neglect this valuable adjunct and must look upon the library as equal in importance to the laboratory and the shop, the gymnasium and the playground.

If a new building is to be erected, the problem of housing is relatively simple compared with that of finding and adapting space in an old building in which no adequate provision has been made for the library. In either case the expert assistance of a trained librarian is highly desirable in order to avoid waste in equipment and in later use. In planning for a library the principal will find the report of the committee of the National Education Association on Library Organization and Equipment of great value. This is published with certain additions, as *Library School Bulletin No. 45* of the New York State Library, Albany.

The following paragraphs are taken from this report:

1. *Location.* A central location on the second floor is usually found most satisfactory for the reading-room. It should have an exposure admitting plenty of light and sunshine. It should be separate from the study hall and should not be used for recitation purposes.

It should be near the study hall. The library should be connected with the study hall by a door or special passageway so that pupils may go from the study hall to the library without the necessity of securing passes to the library. Where this is not feasible the library should be as near as possible to the study hall.

2. *Seating capacity and area.* The reading-room should be provided with facilities to accommodate at one full period readers numbering from 5 to 10 per cent of the total daily attendance of the school. In high schools enrolling 500 pupils the reading-room should have a seating capacity of from 40 to 50; those enrolling 1000 should have a seating capacity of from 75 to 100. An area of at least 25 square feet per reader is required for complete accommodations and service. The minimum seating capacity in the small high school should be that of an average classroom.

3. *Lighting.* The artificial lighting should be by means of electric ceiling fixtures of either the indirect or semi-indirect type.

4. *Finishes.* White ceilings and light-buff walls give the best lighting effects. Dark colors should be avoided in woodwork and trim.

5. *Wall space.* All possible surface downward from a point 7 feet above the floor should be utilized for shelving. Chair railing, wainscoting, and baseboards should be omitted, and the walls plastered to the floor. Any necessary baseboards should be added after the shelving is in place.

6. *Floor covering.* The floor should be covered with linoleum or cork carpet to deaden sound.

In addition to the main reading-room there should be provided ample closet space for storing books or magazines awaiting binding, maps, and other material to which immediate access is not necessary.

For proper housing of the library the provisions described in the foregoing paragraphs should be regarded as the minimum essentials. In view of the importance of the library in school procedure, wherever it is possible provision should also be made for a librarian's workroom for cataloguing and for the storage of both new and old books not ready for circulation; for a library classroom to accommodate from thirty to sixty pupils, suitable for instruction in the use of the library and for other departments wishing to use collections of various sorts housed in the library; for one or more committee rooms in which pupils could work on problems assigned by various departments, particularly English and the social studies.

**Equipment.** The reading-room should contain tables three by five feet in dimension; open wall shelving, not over seven feet high, sufficient to provide for present and probable future needs; magazine and newspaper racks; comfortable chairs fitted with rubber tips or "domes of silence," if the floor is of wood; a charging desk for the librarian and a card-catalogue case. The equipment should also include the various types of cards for cataloguing, book supports, shelf markers, a typewriter, bulletin boards, and the necessary devices for conveniently arranging and storing pictures, clippings, cards, pamphlets, phonograph records, and similar material. The catalogues of dealers in library equipment and supplies contain descriptions of numerous other articles which are desirable but not essential. "School Library Management," by Martha Wilson, gives valuable suggestions regarding the planning and equipment of the school library.

**Books.** The value of a high-school library depends not so much upon the number of books to be found on its shelves

as upon the care with which they are chosen to meet the needs of the pupils. They should be selected with reference to the general aims which the school sets up and should supplement and reënforce the work of all the classrooms and the vocational and recreational needs of the pupils. There should be included carefully selected works for general reference, such as dictionaries and encyclopedias, and general indexes to make available such material as is not easily classified for use. There should be as liberal a supply as possible of current periodicals and newspapers, selected on the basis of their natural interest to young people and their relation to classroom work and to the extra-classroom activities of the pupils. The easy tendency to secure complete sets of the works of standard authors should be resisted, since many books from such sets are never read and occupy space that cannot well be spared. It is much better to supply duplicates of books much in use and to replace those that have become shabby and unattractive in appearance. Books which are out of date often accumulate, and gifts of useless books from well-meaning friends are sometimes received. The librarian should resolutely remove such material from the shelves. There should be some finely illustrated editions of standard books and of works on art and travel. In short, in the selection and care of books two criteria are constantly to be kept in mind, use and attractiveness: the one that pupils may learn to look upon books as a source of usable information, the other that they may come to find in them a source of pleasure and worthy enjoyment.

The library should also contain material of professional interest to the teaching staff. It is not possible to maintain an alert professional attitude in the teaching staff unless the members have constant access to the journals and books dealing with the professional aspects of their work. It is too much to expect that each teacher shall own the books and subscribe for the journals which she could read with profit.

An appropriation should be made to provide as many of these as possible. A small contribution from each teacher would provide each year for one or more books and journals of general interest, and departmental groups could join in purchasing material of value in their specific fields. These books and journals should be made accessible either in a faculty room or in the library and should be regarded as a part of the school library.

The following brief list of journals covers the fields from which selection may be made:

#### GENERAL

- School Review*. The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, Illinois.  
*Journal of Educational Research*. Public School Publishing Co.,  
Bloomington, Illinois.  
*Educational Administration and Supervision*. Warwick & York, Inc.,  
Baltimore, Maryland.  
*School and Society*, Science Press, Garrison-on-Hudson, New York.

#### ENGLISH

- English Journal*. The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, Illinois.

#### FOREIGN LANGUAGES

- Modern Language Journal*, 68th Street and Park Avenue, New York  
City.  
*Classical Journal*. The University of Chicago Press, Chicago,  
Illinois.

#### SOCIAL SCIENCE

- Historical Outlook*. McKinley Publishing Company, Philadelphia,  
Pennsylvania.

#### MATHEMATICS

- Mathematics Teacher*, Yonkers, New York.

#### NATURAL SCIENCE

- General Science Quarterly*, Salem, Massachusetts.

#### HYGIENE AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION

- American Physical Education Review*, 93 Westford Avenue, Spring-  
field, Massachusetts.

#### MANUAL ARTS

- Manual Training Magazine* (now *Industrial Education Magazine*).  
The Manual Arts Press, Peoria, Illinois.

#### HOME ECONOMICS

- Journal of Home Economics*, Station N, Baltimore, Maryland.



**COMMERCIAL EDUCATION**

*Business Educator*, Columbus, Ohio.

**ART**

*School Arts Magazine*, 120 Boylston Street, Boston, Mass.

**VOCATIONAL TRAINING**

*Vocational Education*. J. B. Lippincott Company, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

**Miscellaneous equipment.** A great variety of material other than books should be accumulated in the library and made available for use whenever and wherever needed. Pamphlets and clippings, of great value when properly distributed in filing cases, are only useless rubbish when they are allowed to accumulate casually. Phonograph records, postcards, pictures, cartoons, posters, and no end of such material, if preserved in easily available form, furnish excellent material for classroom instruction or for assembly or club uses. Ample bulletin boards furnish opportunity for the display of class or school projects and furnish incentive for individual and group efforts to interest and instruct the entire school. The motive of these displays may often be found in anniversaries of important authors or scientists or in significant events of the day, such as the excavation of Egyptian tombs or the visit of Lloyd George. In one school the members of a class in journalism were assigned in order the task of placing on the bulletin board each day clippings of what they regarded the most important news article and editorial in the newspapers of the day.

Under the head of miscellaneous equipment should be included the decorations of the room. It need hardly be said that the library should be the most attractive single room in the school building. That the wall space is largely occupied by shelving is no hindrance to the artistic arrangement, for well-ordered books are attractive in themselves. The wall spaces above the shelves may be hung with appropriate pictures, often the gifts of classes or individuals. Reproductions

of the Abbey pictures of the Holy Grail in the Boston Public Library were presented to the library of the University of Chicago High School by succeeding classes for a number of years. Cups and trophies may form a part of the decoration, although the pictures of athletic teams and the banners which have rewarded their prowess may well be given elsewhere the prominence which they deserve. The same may be said of the pictures of graduating classes, which, however great their human interest, have little to recommend them from an artistic point of view. An unusually appropriate decoration in the library of the University of Chicago High School consists of reproductions in color of a considerable number of old bookplates placed on panels above the shelving. These were made by an art class which also prepared a catalogue giving pertinent facts about each plate represented.

**Organization and control.** A trained librarian should be on the staff of every school. This is an ideal, impossible of immediate attainment in the large majority of schools. The importance of the library, however, makes it imperative that some member of the staff, selected because of special fitness for the work, be assigned the care of the library and be given freedom from other duties sufficient to enable her to develop the equipment and the use of the library to the highest possible point. That very marked progress is being made toward this ideal is indicated by the ruling of the Regents of the State of New York that not later than September, 1925, every academic high school in the state must employ a trained librarian. The amount of training and the number of hours to be spent each day in the administration of the library depend on the size of the school. These regulations are not yet formulated. The requirements for certification of school librarians as amended March 31, 1921, are as follows:

A permanent certificate will be issued to a candidate who is a college graduate and who has had at least one year's full work in a library school approved by the Regents.

A five-year certificate will be issued to one who has had at least one year's full work in an approved library school, and after five years of satisfactory service a permanent certificate may be given, provided no permanent certificate be given to anyone who has not had at least one year's full work at an approved library school.

A three-year certificate will be issued to one who is a graduate of an approved short library course of not less than six weeks, provided such person has had at least two years of library experience. After five years of satisfactory service a five-year certificate may be given.

A one-year certificate will be issued to one who is a graduate of an approved college or normal school and who is certified as having done satisfactory work at an approved short library course of not less than six weeks; or to one who is a graduate of an approved short library course of not less than six weeks, provided such person has had one year of library experience.

Certificates are renewable for a like period on satisfactory evidence that acceptable work has been done during the period for which the original certificate was issued.

For services in cities of the first class only permanent certificates will be accepted.

For services in cities of the second class both permanent and five-year certificates will be accepted.

For services in cities of the third class and in villages having five thousand inhabitants or more, the first, second, and third forms of certificate will be accepted.

For services outside of cities and villages of five thousand inhabitants or more, any one of the four forms of certificate will be accepted.

The library should serve every department in the school. Its maximum usefulness cannot be secured without the intelligent coöperation of all the teachers. To secure this will require (at least at first) a program of education of the staff in order that they may realize the great contribution which a wider use of the library can make to the effectiveness of their classroom work. The best way to educate them is to give them something to do. A faculty committee including a representative of each department should be appointed, with the librarian as chairman. This committee should determine policies for the development of the library, draw up rules governing its use, and apportion the available funds so that

each phase of the school work may be provided for equitably. Lists of usable books and periodicals, indicating those that are most immediately desirable, should be prepared by each departmental representative in excess of the number that can be secured in any given year. Certain departments, notably English and history, will need more liberal allowances than others; but no department should be permitted through modesty or indifference to escape the responsibility of urging its needs, and if possible none should be overlooked in the final apportionment. Such departmental book lists, with the necessary data about publisher, date of copyright, price, and careful annotations, were prepared in 1913 by the library committee of the University of Chicago High School. These lists, containing about two thousand titles, are published as a bulletin of the United States Bureau of Education. Such committee procedure, carried out consistently for a number of years, will greatly increase the service of the library and will make it the real unifying center of the intellectual life of the school.

As the scope of the library service increases, the librarian will need assistance. Only in the larger schools can additional trained service be supplied. In other schools, and even in the largest schools, pupils may give much assistance, valuable not only in the relief furnished the librarian but also in the improved attitude of the entire school through coöperation in a common enterprise.

Miss Jessie F. Brainard, librarian of the Horace Mann School for Boys, Teachers College, New York, and formerly librarian of the Hackensack, New Jersey, High School, has had for a number of years a Students' Library Council, which has aided materially in the management of the library and in promoting its influence in the school. In *Public Libraries* for July, 1920, pp. 413-415, she describes the organization and work of the library council in the Hackensack school. It began with an informal group, representing each class, who

organized a drive to secure funds to purchase books of fiction. As a result the sum of fifty dollars was collected. Similar drives were made twice during the following year with considerably larger returns. The success of this informal group led to the organization of a permanent council, whose constitution is given in the article referred to. There are three committees, with specific duties as follows:

A Room Committee, whose duty is to keep the library in the best possible order.

A Flower Committee, whose duty is to keep the library supplied with flowers or greens.

A Magazine Committee, whose duty is to try to secure extra copies of desirable publications designated by the librarian.

The substantial assistance given by pupils included the care of the library a half hour before the morning arrival of the librarian, during her luncheon period, and at times when she was engaged in other duties. At one time, when the librarian was ill, the entire management of the library was in the hands of the council for a period of eight days. Members of the council gave certain periods each week in which they were assigned to regular duties, such as opening and checking mail, clipping papers, handling attendance and passes, cataloguing, filing, and many other details that enter into the work of a librarian. As a result of the training received from this experience two senior girls served satisfactorily as assistants in the library of Teachers College during the summer and have since continued in the same positions during their college vacations.

**Use of the library.** In a previous paragraph it has been stated that the library should be centrally located and near the study hall in order that it may be easily accessible to all. If possible it should be open throughout the entire day; at all events it should be open for a short time before and after the regular school session. Where it is not directly connected



with the study hall, it will be found best not to allow pupils to pass to and from the library except during the interval between classes. Unless the seating capacity is large, it will be necessary to restrict the library to those who wish to use it for reference work or reading for an entire period. But if there is sufficient room, pupils should be given free access to the library, even though they have little occasion to use library material. The time to consult a reference is when it is needed in the study of a lesson. Pupils should also have a chance to learn the habit of using a few minutes left over after a task is done, in looking at a book or magazine or reading a few pages for profit or enjoyment.

In order that all pupils may be properly accounted for, a list of those present in the library at the beginning of a period should be sent to the study hall, where their attendance is checked, and all pupils coming to the library from other sources or during a period should present "admit" slips, which should later be returned and checked by the teachers who issued them.

The books and magazines should be freely accessible, and for this purpose they should be on open shelves. The habit of browsing about quietly and learning the location of attractive books will contribute greatly to the pupils' enjoyment and to the probability of a like use of leisure time in mature years.

**Library instruction.** Of first importance in the use of the library is the thorough and systematic instruction of all pupils in the use of books. The aim of this instruction should be to teach pupils not only how to find the books and other material in the library but also how to make the best use of the material which the library contains. This instruction should be given by the librarian to regularly scheduled classes and should be required of all pupils. It is often convenient to use for this purpose periods regularly assigned to English. If there is no lecture room provided for this purpose in con-

nection with the library, the classes may meet in their regular classrooms. The work should consist of lectures, quizzes, and practical tests, the latter involving actual performance in the library itself. Such instruction, if well given, invariably meets with hearty response from the pupils. Obviously this work should be given early in the high-school course.

Not less than six lessons, with the accompanying practice work, are necessary as a basis for effective use of the library. These should include the mechanical make-up and the printed parts of a book; the arrangement of books in the library and the use of the card catalogue; the use of books of reference, such as dictionaries, encyclopedias, and guides; the making of bibliographies; and the taking of notes. Such lessons are now given in many schools. Valuable suggestions with outlines may be found in Ward's "Suggestive Outlines and Methods for Teaching the Use of the Library" and in "Library Lessons for High Schools," a bulletin issued by the Wisconsin Department of Instruction.

**The teaching staff and the library.** The importance of the close connection and coöperation of all members of the staff with the library has been already referred to. The librarian should keep in intimate touch with the work of the different departments and the specific projects of the classrooms, and should make available all that the library contains in connection with classroom work. Collections of books, clippings, pictures, etc. related to a special topic or project may be placed on reserve shelves or special tables. A bulletin board is often useful in this connection. These special collections may be sent to the classrooms whenever they may be used there more effectively. The development of permanent departmental libraries, found in some schools, is to be discouraged, since they tend to detract from the conception of the library as a correlating center of the school and are on the whole likely to be less effective than the well-conducted central library.

A simple plan by which the librarian may perform a useful service and may secure the coöperation of teachers consists in sending to individuals occasional memoranda regarding new books or pertinent articles which she finds in publishers' lists, book reviews, and current magazines. Such coöperation on the part of the librarian is sure to bring reciprocal response. The following actual memorandum from a librarian to a teacher of English illustrates this sort of service.

"Inexhaustible Italy" in the *National Geographic Magazine* for October would make good material for a magazine report before your freshman class meeting. The article is too long for a single report, but a section of it such as "A road 2100 years old," for instance, would interest the pupils.

**The library as a social center.** In addition to its use as a source of information in connection with classroom assignments and for recreational reading by individuals, the library may be made a center of group interest for a much wider field of activities. The various literary clubs will find the contents of the library and the service of the librarian indispensable. In only slightly less degree is this true of the science and art clubs; the musical organizations and even the athletic teams may find the library a source of help. A special room connected with the library for small-group use is greatly to be desired in connection with these extra-classroom activities.

Special school projects relating to health, better speech, thrift, etc. may be furthered by displays on the library bulletin boards and by special collections of material. Some of these projects may originate in the library itself; for all of them understanding and participation may be promoted through the library as a center of publicity. During the war the collection of books for the men in camps, hospitals, and ships, and the making of scrapbooks for the wounded in hospitals, formed types of social service appropriate to the school library. Displays of photographs taken or postcards collected on vacation trips made by individual pupils fur-

nish opportunity and incentive for sharing one's experiences with his fellows. The wide-awake librarian sees the value of such individual or group enterprises in developing interest in the library and is alert to use such means of making the library the center of the school's life.

The school paper should contain frequent items about new books, striking articles, and special collections or displays to be found in the library. One or more members of the student library committee may be made responsible for the preparation of this material. The following items, which appeared in the *University High-School Daily*, will indicate the value of this sort of publicity.

Boys! have you read "Football Lessons of the Year," by Herbert Reed in *Outing* for January?

Students in Household Arts! the article on "Properly Appointed and Becoming Dwellings" in *Craftsman* for December will interest you.

"Peace Chemistry in War Time" is an interesting article in the *Illustrated World* for August.

"The Farm Boy Cavalier" tells about a new kind of boy scout in the *Illustrated World* for August.

Another useful service which the librarian may render is in the preparation of lists of books suitable for holiday gifts and for vacation reading. It is possible for her to do much to create a desire for ownership of good books and to develop high standards in the choice of books. An article in the *English Journal* for November, 1923, by Miss Stella Whittaker, entitled "The High-School Student and the Book," gives striking evidence of what may be done in this connection.

**The library as a study hall.** The Committee on Library Organization and Equipment (p. 304) recommended that the library should be separate from the study hall. This seems to be desirable from the point of view of administration. It is, however, a pity to regard the use of books for the study of lessons as differing from their appropriate use in the library. If the library space is too limited to allow the pres-

ence of all pupils not assigned to classroom work, the study hall should be near, and, so far as possible, freedom in passing from one to the other for the purpose of consulting library material should be given. It is extremely desirable that what is called the library atmosphere should prevail wherever books are to be used.

In some schools the study hall and the library are combined with satisfactory results. This has for many years been the case in the University of Chicago High School. The reading-room has a seating capacity for about one hundred pupils, and at some periods it is completely filled. Miss Hannah Logasa, the librarian, in addition to the specialized training for her work, has this most important qualification for a school librarian: she is more interested in boys and girls than in books. The necessary routine of checking attendance is efficiently handled with little loss of time from the more important duties of supervision and direction of the pupils' work. The attention given by the librarian to the observation and improvement of the study habits of individual pupils is unique and effective in its results. This is in marked contrast with the usual type of study-hall control, in which the teacher in charge is thought to meet reasonable expectation if he "keeps order." In this library, as in a well-directed classroom, proper conduct seems inherent in the situation.

**Financial support.** The salary of the librarian should be included in the regular budget for instruction, and will depend in amount upon the schedule of teachers' salaries and the amount of service required. Appropriations for equipment should be made from the same sources and with the same liberality as for any other department. The amount of money required would, of course, depend upon the size of the school and the space available for library purposes. Proper maintenance would require an annual expenditure for new books and magazines, binding, catalogue cards, and



other supplies. A minimum annual expenditure of 50 cents per pupil is necessary for books, and not less than \$50 for magazines and newspapers is needed even in a small high school.

The funds for maintenance should not depend upon such incidental and uncertain sources as school entertainments, but should be provided by regular annual appropriations. Pupils may be encouraged to raise funds in appropriate ways to provide suitable decorations, special equipment, or illustrated editions. The service and needs of the library may be presented to the Parents' Association at a meeting held, if possible, in the library itself, and a committee of parents may be formed to secure special financial support. The pupils may organize a drive throughout the community for gifts of money or books. In this case it is wise to prepare a list of books that will be acceptable in order to remove the necessity of consigning to the scrap heap many of the books which will otherwise appear through the generosity of well-intentioned but indiscriminating friends.

**The public library and the school.** In many cities the public library is an outgrowth of school libraries. In some cases the public library has taken over and maintains branch libraries in the schools. In Cleveland all the senior high schools and six junior high schools have libraries so maintained. In some other cities a special high-school department is maintained in the public library apart from the school itself. Both these forms of service are helpful to the school. However, it will readily be seen that the conception of the school library presented in this chapter requires a more intimate relation to the school than is possible where the library is not housed in the school building itself. Better results are also likely to be secured where those in charge of the library service are part of the school organization and directly responsible to school authorities. However excellent the public library, every school should have a library of its own.

The public library may supplement the resources of the school, and helpful coöperation of this sort is found in many cities. Books are purchased by public libraries to meet the needs of the schools, or are placed on reserve at the request of high-school teachers, and often are lent to the school library in order that they may be more easily available for pupils. Sometimes instruction on the use of books is given at the school by a member of the public-library staff. At Munhall, Pennsylvania, and Youngstown, Ohio, a plan of coöperation has been worked out for grades III-VIII by which the public library attends to the delivery of books to the schools, their care and inventory, and supervision of the reading of the children. In this case the books are purchased from school funds. At the end of the year a certificate is given by the public library to every pupil who has read ten or more books. That more than half the pupils in Youngstown win these certificates shows how valuable the plan is in furnishing incentive for reading good books.

**Summary.** The principal's responsibility for the library begins with his recognition of its importance as a means of securing the aims of the school. A reading of "Sanderson of Oundle" will give the principal added insight and quickened imagination as to the possibilities of the library as developed in an unusual English school of modern type. The location, size, equipment, and administration of the library should be consistent with the conception of its purpose as the correlating center of the school's activities. If a new building is to be erected, ample provision can be secured only by strong pressure against the traditional attitude of school authorities and architects. Equally strong pressure will be necessary to bring about in old buildings such adaptations as are necessary to meet the needs. Wherever possible a trained librarian should be in charge — at least a teacher with special aptitude for the task should be assigned to the library, with such relief from other duties as is necessary.

## PROBLEMS AND QUESTIONS

1. Suggest steps which a principal might take to secure the necessary support for library equipment and administration.
2. What are the legal provisions for school libraries in some other state than New York?
3. What library standards are found in the standards of such voluntary associations as the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools?
4. What seem to you to be the advantages and disadvantages of combining the study hall and the library?
5. Mention some of the elements which make up the "library atmosphere."
6. Mention specific items which should be included in instruction (1) in the use of books; (2) in taking notes.
7. How may the librarian keep in touch with the work of the various classrooms?
8. How may interest in the library be promoted through the school assembly?
9. Make out a budget by departments for the distribution of \$2000 for the purchase of books in a school which up to this time has had no library.

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## CHAPTER XVII

### CURRICULA AND COURSES OF STUDY

Up to this point we have dealt with the problems of administration of the school: the relation of the high school to the lower and higher schools and to the community, the organization of the teaching staff, the control of pupils, the school plant, the schedule of recitations, blank forms and reports, the marking system, and the library. Too often the principal's horizon extends little beyond the circle of these administrative tasks. Throughout the discussion we have maintained, either by direct statement or by implication, that these tasks, important as they are, are secondary to the main purpose of the school and find their justification only as they add to the effectiveness of instruction. The remaining chapters will discuss those problems that are more directly related to the improvement of instruction and are usually classified as problems of supervision.

The curriculum has ordinarily been conceived as limited to the subjects and material of classroom instruction. Guided by tradition, with textbooks reflecting college prescriptions and the theory of general discipline, the principal has thought of the curriculum as involving little more than the adjustment of teachers and classrooms to a working schedule. But the modern conception of the curriculum as including all educative experiences of the pupil, both within and without the classroom, and the recognition of the fact that the same experiences are not equally adapted to the educative needs of all pupils have changed curriculum-making from a mere administrative task to one of the most fundamental problems of the school.

**Content of the curriculum.** The subjects to be included in the curriculum and the material within these subjects should be selected on the basis of social use. The curriculum problem centers in the present and probable future needs of the pupil. It involves on the one hand a study of what people do in society as it is now constituted, and also what people might do if the life of society were on a higher level; it involves on the other hand a study of the individual pupil to determine what is most likely, in the light of his natural interests and capacities, to prepare him to play his part in life with the greatest satisfaction.

1. *Social use.* Whether a certain subject should have a place in the curriculum (mathematics, for example) is to be put to the test of use. Do people employ mathematical knowledge and skill in real-life situations? The answer is to be found by observing what people talk about and read, what the professional man, the mechanic, the housewife, and workers in other fields do in their hours of labor and of recreation. It can easily be shown that certain mathematical knowledge and skill are needed by all, and thus the place of mathematics in the curriculum is assured. But there still remains the question What are the mathematical concepts and skills which all require? Certainly these are not the same for the farmer and the engineer. Further observation and study are necessary to determine the common and specialized mathematical needs of different types of people. On the results of such studies are to be determined the questions to what extent mathematics shall be required of all pupils and what courses shall be offered in addition to meet the needs of special groups. Within the special fields of mathematics sweeping changes have already been made to meet the demand of social use. Large parts of algebra, as long taught in the high school, have been omitted and new topics, such as the graph, have been added. Intuitional and constructive geometry are displacing much of the demonstrative



material. The requirement of two or more years of mathematics for graduation from the high school, once found in all schools, has given place to one year in many four-year high schools and to two years in the junior high school. Furthermore, this required work has been greatly modified; in many schools it combines the more useful portions of algebra, geometry, and trigonometry.

Extensive investigations, made possible by substantial grants from different foundations, have been made in the fields of mathematics and Latin, and others are in progress or in prospect in the social studies, English, and science. Other investigations have been made by individuals working under actual school conditions. While the methods employed in these investigations differ, those that have been completed point the way to important changes in emphasis upon the aims and values in their respective fields which the principal must consider in shaping the curriculum requirements of his school.

2. *Individual need.* No less important than the determination of what subjects shall have place in the curriculum, and what shall be the content of these subjects, is the problem of guiding the individual pupil to choose those subjects of study in which his natural interests and capacities are most likely to lead to his success in school and in mature life. Vocational guidance is a hazardous calling, and not the least so for the recipient. Only slight reliance can be placed on available prognosis tests to determine capacity for special studies. For such purposes the tests of general mental ability are the best, probably because the abilities required in the different studies are much the same. Ability below a certain level makes failure almost sure in certain subjects, as usually taught, and furnishes valid basis for advice, if not for arbitrary insistence. In the main, however, educational and vocational guidance is a human problem, requiring a sympathetic understanding of the instincts, enthusiasms, whims, and prejudices of youth, an acquaintance with the social and eco-

conomic status of parents and family traditions, a knowledge of the requirements of the various professions and callings,—all these and much besides, combined with good judgment and a humility that makes one stop short of acting as if he knew exactly for what specific calling in life nature has designed each boy or girl. Guidance should point the way to a choice by the pupil; it should never make the choice for him.

**Organization of material.** Social use should determine curriculum content in general; the final organization of the material in each subject is to be determined by the laws of effective learning. How upsetting this principle is when applied to textbook-writing is revealed by an examination of some of the more recent textbooks and by listening to the clamor of the controversy between the advocates of the logical and psychological methods of organization. The demand for complete and logical development of each subject in bulkhead compartments is giving way, barriers are breaking down, and the pupil in the midst of his complex environment is becoming the focus of attention of the textbook-writer. General science has in a few years replaced the single specialized course with which pupils began and often ended their study of science; general mathematics promises to become the only course to be required in this field; and the separate treatment of geography, civics, history, and economics is beginning to yield to the vigorous assault of the social scientists who would combine them all in the general social studies. A striking illustration of the new emphasis is presented in a recent and widely used textbook in civics in which the first chapter is entitled "Myself and Others."

Recognition of the fact that information is valuable only as it furnishes material for the higher thought-processes is causing the abandonment of the encyclopedic presentation of the material of a special subject, seldom mastered and soon forgotten. In its place is found the intensive treatment of

fewer topics, selected as types on the basis of their relative values, to furnish in the classroom and laboratory some experience in handling the material and solving the problems which life really presents.

There is great need of a scientific and detailed study of the different subjects of the curriculum to determine the specific learning difficulties and the best methods of overcoming them. Thorndike's "Psychology of Algebra" is an excellent beginning, which doubtless will be followed by experimental studies in other subjects. Such studies will prove invaluable both to textbook-writers and to teachers in the classroom.

**The principal's problem.** The foregoing brief discussion shows curriculum-making to be a highly technical procedure, requiring expert training beyond what the principal may reasonably be expected to possess. We should consider what are his responsibilities and the methods of procedure which he should take to meet the curriculum needs of his school. In the first place it should be observed that only rarely does he have to make a curriculum for a new school. He finds himself in a school already established with a good many practical limitations to curriculum changes, among which are some or all of the following: There is a curriculum of the traditional sort already in operation. The community, on the whole, is satisfied with the curriculum as it is and would be critical of any marked changes. The teachers have limited professional training and the customary aversion to change. The equipment of the school is adapted to conditions as they are, and appropriations to meet new types of work are difficult to secure. The textbooks, which more than any other single factor determine curriculum content, reflect the traditional attitude. In addition, there are the usual restrictions set up by state prescriptions with their accompanying syllabi, and the ever-present college-entrance requirements.

With these practical limitations it is not probable that the principal will make such rapid progress toward the ideal

curriculum as seriously to upset the complacency which pervades his teaching staff and the supporting community. It is much more likely that he himself will share the prevailing complacency and will devote himself to the administrative tasks in which his training and experience make him surer of his ground.

It will be helpful for the principal to realize that the curriculum is never made but is always in the making. For him the problem consists in the progressive adaptation of conditions as they exist to the general aims of the secondary school and their specific application to his own particular school. There is available a constantly growing literature of the subject setting forth the results of expert investigation, and new textbooks, based on the findings of these investigations, are appearing rapidly. With this literature the principal should familiarize himself and should work out its applications to the needs of his own school.

Curriculum-making is not the problem of the principal alone. He is not wise enough; and even if he were, it is not good policy to impose a ready-made curriculum upon his staff. Too often this has been done; and perhaps quite as often even the principal himself has had to accept a curriculum drawn up by the superintendent or school board, in the shaping of which he has had little voice. The curriculum should result from the coöperative activity of the entire staff, not only because it is likely to be a better curriculum but also because it will be more effective in its application by teachers who understand its underlying principles and who have shared in the responsibility for its preparation and adoption.

There should be a standing committee on curriculum, composed of teachers of experience and vision and including a representative of each department. This committee should draw up a statement of the general aims which should underlie the curriculum. Such discussion of aims as that contained in Inglis's "Principles of Secondary Education," chap. x, in the

"Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education," and in Chapter II of this book will prove helpful in suggestion. The statement of aims should be the result of careful thought and discussion in committee, and in its final form should be approved, after further discussion, by the entire staff.

The formulation of general aims is not likely to affect to any great degree the choice of materials and methods of instruction unless they are made explicit in the specific aims of the different subjects. Statements of such aims should be prepared by the teachers of each subject. In this connection much helpful material will be found in Inglis's "Principles of Secondary Education," chaps. xii-xix, and in the curriculum studies of Bobbitt in Los Angeles.

In the work of the general curriculum committee and especially of the representatives of the different subjects, special attention should be given to the life of the community in which the school is situated. A survey of the occupations of the community, and an analysis of the needs of its members which may be met by the school, will add objectivity and accompanying motive to school work. There is little danger that such studies will narrow unduly the scope of the curriculum or the methods of instruction.

If this fundamental approach to the curriculum is to reach a successful issue, there will be demanded of the principal the highest type of leadership. Some of his department heads and more of his teachers will not see the need or have the ability, unaided, to carry out the program. He will have to labor patiently with individuals and groups, giving encouragement and assistance here, applying pressure there, always leading, confident in the knowledge that he and his staff alike are gaining in professional knowledge and grasp and that the final result will be better teamwork in achieving the higher ends of the school. There will always be found some who, by reason of superior training or natural interest, will attack the problem with an enthusiasm equal to his own.



These should be encouraged to undertake experiments with new material or methods. The entire faculty should be kept in touch with the progress of the different departments and of individuals through presentation in faculty meetings and through mimeographed outlines and reports.

**Principles governing the curriculum.** It is possible to lay down certain principles as practical guides in formulating the curricula of the high school. These apply to any form of high school, though with varying emphasis in the junior and senior schools. Six such principles are here given:

1. *There should be different curricula preparing for specific ends.* After the process of exploration, and with guidance based on knowledge of the pupils' natural capacities and interests, differentiated curricula should be provided, so organized as to lead to specific life ends. This principle has long been recognized and finds expression in such designations of curricula as college preparatory, commercial, industrial arts, and agricultural. Other curricula, designated as general or scientific, are frequently found and usually indicate no such specific aims. To avoid the danger of narrow specialization these curricula must conform to the principles which follow. The subjects and their content and organization should fulfill the requirement of social use. To provide against inevitable mistakes in guidance, transfer from one curriculum to another should be allowed, when indicated as desirable, with the least possible loss to pupils.

2. *Each curriculum should contain varied elements preparing for each of the general aims.* The general aims of health, vocational training, social coöperation, and the worthy use of leisure should be provided for in each curriculum. Narrow specialization, in preparation either for college or for a mechanical trade, is inconsistent with the fundamental aims of the high school. The mechanic should be thought of not merely as one who earns his living by manual skill, but as the father of a family and a citizen of the community, with

a constantly increasing number of hours to be spent in leisure. The college graduate should be regarded not merely as a lawyer or physician, but also as one whose life, both within and without his professional sphere, requires a far wider range of knowledge and appreciation than is comprised within college-entrance requirements and later college and professional courses. Each curriculum, therefore, should comprise in proper balance a much wider range than is necessary merely to supply the information and skill necessary to a given calling.

3. *For the purpose of securing integration all curricula should contain common elements.* One of the aims of education is to provide for the common possession by all pupils of certain information, skills, ideals, attitudes, and habits. This function of integration is most important in the elementary school. It is only slightly less important in the junior high school and should be carried on to some degree in the senior high school. The common elements, designated as *constants*, should include English, mathematics, natural science, social science, physical training, music, and practical arts.

These constants, common to all curricula, may be further briefly described. The required courses in English should aim to give training in the correct and effective use of the vernacular both in speaking and in writing and an acquaintance with and appreciation of some of the best literature of our language. The required mathematics should give command of the fundamental processes and a usable acquaintance with the concepts of number and space that enter into the common experiences of life. Natural science should develop an attitude of inquiry toward material things and the scientific method of dealing with them. The social studies should give the information and experience in the fields of geography, civics, history, and economics necessary to make one an intelligent and right-minded member of society. Physical education, with accompanying hygiene, should aim

to give the information and develop the habits that will secure the maximum physical efficiency possible for each pupil. Music, as a required subject, should aim at appreciation, not performance. Practical arts should include the household arts for all girls and some form of shop work for boys without direct vocational aim. Both boys and girls should have enough of drawing to enable them to represent objects in freehand sketch.

The constant courses, to be pursued by all for purposes of integration, will vary in length in different subjects and should be followed by more advanced courses for differentiated groups. It is customary in many schools to require English in the same form for all through all the years of the school. For this there is little justification except precedent. In mathematics the required course should include only what is presented in the first book of general mathematics, and in science simply a course in general science. The social-science requirement should include geography and civics or general social science in the junior high school and American history and the problems of democracy in the senior high school. Physical training should be required each year, although this should be varied in the later years by the use of sports adapted to the interests or physical capacity of different groups. The required work in music and art may continue for one or two years, depending upon the number of weekly class assignments.

4. *For purposes of exploration all pupils should be introduced, as early as is feasible, to each field of the curriculum.* In the junior high school, the distinctive function of which is exploration, this introduction should be given in the seventh and eighth grades. In the four-year high school it should be given, as far as possible, in the first year. The fields for exploration include those mentioned above as constants, to which should be added foreign language. The principle under discussion should not be applied to foreign language, although

no certain means of prognosis of success in this field has been devised and actual tryout (with tremendous toll of failure) has been the method usually applied. Only those pupils should attempt a foreign language, at least as taught at present, whose general ability and past achievement warrant reasonable expectation of success. The first foreign language should ordinarily be taken in the eighth grade of the junior high school or the first year of the four-year school. All courses should be valuable in themselves aside from their use as means of exploration, and credit should be given whether or not more advanced courses are pursued. There is no justification for the requirement, which still persists in many schools, that no credit shall be allowed for less than two years' work in a foreign language. Although we would not advise a pupil to begin Latin with the expectation of stopping at the end of one year, there is no sufficient reason why the work should not be profitable and why credit for a year's work should not be given if the study is discontinued at the end of this time.

5. *Continuity should be secured in each curriculum by the requirement of sequences of two or more years in several subjects.* The principle of variety must be balanced by the complementary principle of continuity to avoid the danger of a scrappy, poorly balanced curriculum. For this purpose provision should be made for two major sequences of three years each and two minor sequences of two years each in four subjects. This requirement, combined with the subjects necessary for integration, would assure a well-rounded curriculum in accordance with the other principles already laid down. A plan by which the group-sequence method takes the place of differentiated curricula with specific designation is given later in this chapter.

6. *Provision should be made in courses of study to adapt the content and rate of progress to the abilities of different groups.* In the larger schools this involves the segregation of classes

into groups of varying ability, with provision either for more rapid promotion of accelerated groups or for a difference in the content of the courses. The Ben Blewett Junior High School, St. Louis, allows pupils to complete its curriculum in two, two and a half, or three years. Other schools require all pupils to take the same time, but provide courses with a richer content for the abler groups. Smaller schools with too few pupils for segregated groups have the more difficult problem of adapting the content of the courses to pupils of varying abilities within the same class group.

**Junior-high-school curriculum.** As the junior high school is emerging from the experimental stage the functions of integration and exploration have become recognized as most important for framing its curricula. The following proposed

#### CURRICULUM OF THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

GRADE VII		GRADE VIII		GRADE IX	
Constants	Periods	Constants	Periods	Constants	Periods
English	5	English	5	English	5
Social studies	5	Social studies	5	Social studies	5
Mathematics	5	General science	5	General science	5
Physiology and hygiene	3	Mathematics	5	Physical training	3
Practical arts	5	Physical training	3	Music	2
Physical training	3	Music	2	<i>Total constants</i>	20
Music	2	<i>Total constants</i>	25		
<i>Total constants</i>	28				
		Variables (One to be taken)	Periods	Variables (Two to be taken)	Periods
		Foreign language	5	Foreign language	5
		Practical arts	5	Mathematics	5
		Fine arts	5	Practical arts	5-10
		<i>Total variables</i>	5	Fine arts	5-10
				Commerical studies	5-10
				<i>Total variables</i>	10-15



curriculum represents present tendencies in conformity with the principles laid down in this chapter. It will be observed that the first year is composed entirely of constants, and that the second and third years allow only one and two variables respectively.

**Senior-high-school curriculum.** The following suggestion for the curriculum of the senior high school does not undertake to set up differentiated curricula under specific heads. Such curricula would transfer to the lists of constants many of the subjects here designated as variables; for example, in the college-preparatory curriculum foreign language and

## CURRICULUM OF THE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

GRADE X		GRADE XI		GRADE XII	
Constants	Periods	Constants	Periods	Constants	Periods
English	5	English	4	English	4
Physical training	$\frac{3}{8}$	Physical training	$\frac{3}{7}$	Physical training	3
<i>Total constants</i>		<i>Total constants</i>		Social studies (United States history and problems of democracy)	5
				<i>Total constants</i>	<u>12</u>
Variables (Three to be taken)	Periods	Variables (Three to be taken)	Periods	Variables (Two to be taken)	Periods
Foreign language	5	Foreign language	5	Foreign language	5
Mathematics	5	Mathematics	5	Mathematics	5
Science	5	Science	5	Science	5
History	5	History	5	Commercial studies	5-10
Commercial studies	5-10	Commercial studies	5-10	Household arts	5-10
Household arts	5-10	Household arts	5-10	Agriculture	5-10
Agriculture	5-10	Agriculture	5-10	Fine arts	5-10
Fine arts	5-10	Fine arts	5-10	Industrial arts	5-10
Industrial arts	5-10	Industrial arts	5-10	Music	<u>3</u>
Music	$\frac{3}{15-20}$	Music	$\frac{3}{15-20}$	<i>Total variables</i>	10-15
<i>Total variables</i>		<i>Total variables</i>			

mathematics would be required for two or more years. No attempt has been made to indicate the specific courses to be offered under various heads, such as commercial studies, household arts, fine arts, agriculture, and industrial arts. It would be impossible to draw up in detail any schematic representation of the curricula of the senior high school that would have general application. Conditions in different communities must determine the possible scope of the subjects to be offered and the types of courses suited to the needs of the pupils. In making the curricula for any school it is important that provision be made for continuity in several of the subjects offered.

**The four-year high school.** Most high schools are organized on a four-year basis, and this will probably be the dominant type for many years. For this reason brief consideration of the curriculum of this form of organization will be useful. Here the integrating function of the junior high school should be performed, in the main, in the elementary school. There remains in the four-year high school the necessity of combining exploration, the unique function of the junior high school, with differentiation, the peculiar function of the senior high school. Therefore the offerings of the first year will be composed largely of constants for the purpose of exploration; the remaining years will be given largely to the variables. In the following scheme, as in that for the senior high school, there is no attempt to present differentiated curricula.

**Group-sequence organization of curricula.** A method of organizing the curriculum which conforms to the principles set up in this chapter, without the drawing up of differentiated curricula with specific designations, may be described as the group-sequence form of organization. The total offerings are divided into groups as follows: (1) English, (2) mathematics, (3) social studies, (4) natural science, (5) physical training, (6) music, (7) foreign language, (8) household arts, (9) practical and fine arts, (10) agriculture.

## CURRICULUM OF THE FOUR-YEAR HIGH SCHOOL

FIRST YEAR		SECOND YEAR	
<i>Constants</i>	<i>Periods</i>	<i>Constants</i>	<i>Periods</i>
English	5	English	5
Mathematics	5	Physical training	<u>3</u>
Social studies	5	<i>Total constants</i>	8
General science	3		
Physical training	3	<i>Variables</i>	
Music	<u>2</u>	(Three to be taken)	
<i>Total constants</i>	23	Foreign language	5
		Mathematics	5
<i>Variables</i>		History	5
(One to be taken)		Commercial studies	5-10
Foreign language	5	Household arts	5-10
Practical arts	5	Agriculture	5-10
Fine arts	5	Fine arts	5-10
Commercial studies	<u>5</u>	Industrial arts	5-10
<i>Total variables</i>	5	Music	<u>3</u>
		<i>Total variables</i>	15-20
THIRD YEAR		FOURTH YEAR	
<i>Constants</i>	<i>Periods</i>	<i>Constants</i>	<i>Periods</i>
English	4	English	4
Physical training	<u>3</u>	Social studies	5
<i>Total constants</i>	7	(United States History and problems of de- mocracy)	
<i>Variables</i>		Physical training	<u>3</u>
(Three to be taken)		<i>Total constants</i>	12
Foreign language	5		
Mathematics	5	<i>Variables</i>	
History and economics	5	(Two to be taken)	
Commercial studies	5-10	Foreign language	5
Household arts	5-10	Mathematics	5
Agriculture	5-10	Commercial studies	5-10
Fine arts	5-10	Household arts	5-10
Industrial arts	5-10	Agriculture	5-10
Music	<u>3</u>	Fine arts	5-10
<i>Total variables</i>	15-20	Industrial arts	5-10
		Music	<u>3</u>
		<i>Total variables</i>	10-15

The curriculum requirements usually include a total of 15 units exclusive of physical training. The constants — English 4 units, social studies 2 units, mathematics 1 unit, science 1 unit — amount to 8 units. The remaining 7 units may be chosen from any of the variables in such a way as to include two major sequences of at least 3 units each (including English) and two minor sequences of 2 units each.

If some of the possible combinations under this method are selected, it will be seen that all the curriculum principles apply and that the results conform to the requirements of a well-rounded curriculum in any of the differentiated fields for which provision need be made. For example, a pupil preparing for a commercial position might present English 4, mathematics 2, social studies 2, science 1, commercial studies 4, foreign language 2. Pupils interested in science, art, or any other of the variables could elect a major and a minor sequence in the fields of their special interests. Only those pupils preparing for admission to colleges whose requirements are limited and exacting would have to take more than fifteen units, and even these would have to take but sixteen. The application of this plan actually groups pupils in the same manner as the differentiated curricula, but it has the advantage of less rigidity than is usually found in the more formal method of organization. The plan obviously calls for careful guidance of the pupil at every stage of his progress through the school.

**Summary.** In this chapter there has been given a brief statement of the principles underlying the selection and arrangement of subject matter and its organization in curricula to meet the needs of the modern high school. It is the principal's task to apply these principles as fully as is permitted by the situation in the community in which his school is located. He should realize that he cannot remake the curriculum in a day or a year. As an antidote to complacency he should also realize that the curriculum should

never be static, but should always be in the making. Here is his best opportunity for professional leadership. He must encourage his staff to study and discuss the literature of the field, to ascertain the peculiar needs of the pupils of his school, and to develop an experimental attitude toward the materials of instruction. Only thus will he be able to make substantial progress in adapting the curriculum to meet the well-considered aims of the modern school.

### PROBLEMS AND QUESTIONS

1. Outline a plan for educational guidance which would reach every pupil in a school with an enrollment of five hundred.

2. Point out specifically how some recently published textbook carries out the principles outlined in the discussion in this chapter of the selection and organization of the material of instruction.

3. Show how the practical limitations of the principal's problem discussed on page 325 apply in some situation with which you are familiar.

4. What difficulties are likely to confront the principal who undertakes to share with his staff the making of the curriculum?

5. What use could you as principal make of the objectives and guiding principles and assumptions in Bobbitt's treatment of curriculum-making?

6. Under each of the following heads name five items which the school should undertake to give to all pupils: (1) information; (2) skills; (3) ideals; (4) habits.

7. What reasons can be urged against accelerated progress of pupils through the high school?

8. Should the junior high school give vocational courses? Support your answer.

9. Under the group-sequence method of organizing the curriculum indicate by number of units in each group suitable curricula for the following types of pupils in a four-year high school: a pupil preparing for (1) an engineering school; (2) farming; (3) the trade of machinist; (4) Wellesley College; (5) a pre-medical course in college.



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## CHAPTER XVIII

### SUPERVISION OF INSTRUCTION

It would seem unnecessary to say, were it not that ordinary school management indicates little recognition of the fact, that instruction is the most important activity taking place in the school; in short, it is for the sake of instruction, broadly conceived, that the State has set up the entire machinery of the school and incurred the expense of its operation. It is apparent, then, that the improvement of instruction is the most important aim which the principal should have in mind in arranging the schedule of his activities. Under the very best conditions it may be assumed that there is some poor teaching, and every principal knows that it is not easy to dismiss a teacher except for the grossest inefficiency. The improvement of instruction, then, means for the most part the improvement of teachers in service.

Until recently the function of the principal in the supervision and improvement of instruction has received little recognition, either from principals themselves or from superintendents and boards of education. Principals have usually been selected because of their social and executive qualifications, and they have naturally developed in the direction of routine efficiency in dealing with the personal or managerial problems of the position as commonly conceived. Such knowledge as the principal has had of what goes on in the classrooms of his teachers has been secured through office gossip with pupils, parents, or teachers or by glass-door or keyhole observation as he has hurried through the halls on the lookout for chance or anticipated disorder. Nor have teachers ordinarily expected, nor would they understand the meaning of, classroom

visitation by the principal. The head of a large high school told the writer that if he were to spend an hour in a classroom the teacher would suspect that something was wrong, and the pupils would be sure of it.

In contrast with the high school, supervision has been practiced in the elementary school for a considerable time, and special supervisors have been trained for this purpose. Explanation of this fact may be found, in part at least, in the difference in the conception of teaching on the two levels. In the elementary school, teaching has been regarded as an art for which there was a technique to be acquired; in the high school, teaching ability has been considered a gift for which the only requisite was a command of subject matter. The professional training of high-school teachers is a relatively recent development, dating back little more than a decade to the time when the first books on methods of teaching in the high school made their appearance. With the recognition of high-school teaching also as an art, the need of supervision arose, for wherever there is an art to be acquired there is a technique to be improved.

Considering its recent advent into high-school procedure, it is not strange that high-school principals for the most part find themselves in a state of baffled uncertainty regarding their part in a program of supervision. There is no book dealing expressly with supervision in the high school, and very few helpful articles on the subject have appeared in the journals. On the programs of secondary-school conferences one finds very infrequent reference to supervision. In teacher-training institutions courses in high-school supervision have only recently been offered and these, quite naturally, have been built largely on theory and on the practice of the elementary school, for practice in the high school has not existed. It is probable that many a principal has gone home from the summer session with high resolve to devote a large part of his time to supervision, but when his head has emerged from

the flood of routine in which he has found himself during the first few weeks of the year, his plans for supervision seem like a half-forgotten dream and he wonders whether college professors would talk as they do if they actually had to manage a school.

In the broadest use of the term, supervision includes much more than the attempt to improve the technique of teachers based on the observation of their work in the classroom. Fundamental to supervision is the consideration of educational aims and values and the selection and organization of the materials of instruction to meet the aims set up. The professionally conducted faculty meeting also is an important factor in supervision. These matters have been treated in earlier chapters. It has seemed best to present in this chapter a program including only the more objective and perhaps mechanical aspects of supervision.

**Program of supervision.** An effective program for the improvement of instruction involves, besides a recognition of its supreme importance, five things: (1) a liberal allowance of time for observing teachers at work; (2) a detailed knowledge of what constitutes good teaching; (3) a technique of supervision; (4) a spirit of coöperation on the part of the teachers, based on a recognition of the value to them of such a program; (5) the testing of results.

1. *Time for supervision.* To secure the necessary time the principal should make a survey of the varied tasks that enter into the management of his school, with careful consideration of their relative importance and of the most effective methods of performing them. He should decide which of these tasks he may best perform himself and which of them he can delegate to others. Before he can secure any substantial relief from routine, there will be required a campaign of education of his immediate staff and of his superintendent and board. The members of his staff will not willingly accept additions to their already heavy schedules unless they are

convinced that gains are to be secured in which they will ultimately share. Indeed, there is grave danger that by assigning to teachers tasks not directly related to the work of the classroom the actual effectiveness of teaching may be diminished. For this reason it should be possible to reduce the teaching schedule of those who are asked to perform regular duties of administration. Moreover, many tasks would be better done by skilled clerks. In schools with a registration of five hundred or more pupils there should be an assistant principal.

But before any considerable increase can be made in the teaching or administrative staff, its need must be made apparent to the superintendent and board. Boards of education, in their provision for the administration of the high school, do not usually display the sagacity which they show in the management of their private business affairs. This is mainly due to their lack of enlightenment. It should not be difficult to convince them that it is poor business to pay the salary of a professional expert for the performance of a clerk's duties. If they can be convinced that they have such an expert, for the sake of economy they will make it possible for him to perform his professional duties, as they would for the managers of their stores or shops. In any given school the principal must take up the situation as he finds it and begin a program which he will hope to expand as he is able to convince his staff and his superiors of its value. This will require clear insight and resolute determination. The only practical way to escape his present overwhelming program of routine is to make for himself a daily schedule of supervision which he should allow to be interrupted only by extreme emergency.

2. *Technique of teaching.* The second requisite, a detailed knowledge of what constitutes good teaching, is easier of attainment. It is true that the qualifications on which the selection of principals is based have not in many cases included such knowledge. The condition in this respect is improving



rapidly by reason of the growing insistence upon professional training and the consequent increase in attendance upon professional schools, particularly during the summer sessions. It is not necessary that the principal have expert knowledge of the subject matter of instruction in the various subjects, but he should be well trained in the general methods which apply to all instruction and in the adaptation of these to the special methods which apply to the different subjects of the curriculum. He should thus be able to substitute for the general-impression method of judging a teacher's work an estimate based on detailed evaluation of the methods of teaching and of the results secured.

3. *Technique of supervision.* The third requisite, a technique of supervision, is the most important and the most difficult. We have for a long time been training supervisors of special subjects for the elementary school, but only very recently have courses been offered in professional schools for training in supervision of high-school instruction. These courses and the literature which is beginning to appear in the journals and other educational publications give promise of rapid development in this field. The numerous score cards of Elliott, Boyce, Rugg, and others, although intended primarily for another purpose, probably have been most valuable for their analysis of the detailed qualities of merit in teaching and the opportunity which they offer to teachers for self-analysis. It has been pointed out that they are unsatisfactory for rating the effectiveness of teaching because of their emphasis upon qualities of teaching rather than upon the results of teaching. Some such detailed analysis of the teaching process, in the hands of both the supervisor and the teachers, is a necessary part of the technique of supervision.

In order to secure the best results the principal must have a definite plan of action. It is essential that he spend much time in the classroom, visiting his teachers not once but many times, not for a few minutes but for entire periods.

It may be best for him to give most attention to his new and least experienced teachers. They are likely to be most immediately responsive. He may decide to give his attention at one time to the work of a single year or of a single subject. In any case it is wise not to attempt too much at once, but to concentrate upon some particular group or upon a single phase of teaching. It is a good plan to take up for a time classroom management or some topic of technique, such as questioning or problem-solving, thus giving attention to some particular phase of the teaching process until general and permanent improvement in a limited field has been secured throughout the entire staff.

The follow-up of classroom observation is most important. Under no circumstances should the principal interrupt a teacher with criticism during the progress of the recitation or discuss her work in the presence of pupils. It is well to follow each visit with an interview in which the excellences and defects observed are discussed in a direct and sympathetic manner. The interview may be held at whatever time or place is most convenient. One successful principal has an understanding with his teachers that his visits to the classroom are to be followed by a return call at his office during the day. These interviews should be arranged without undue formality and, especially in the case of new or inexperienced teachers, should not be long delayed. Many a conscientious teacher has lost sleep through anxiety as to what her principal thought of her performance. Sometimes at the close of the period the principal hands to the teacher memoranda made during the observation which indicate the items to be taken up in the interview. This procedure is of doubtful value, as the memoranda may not be clear and are likely to place the teacher in an attitude of defense. In the interview it should be the principal's aim not to give merely criticism of defects, for there is seldom a recitation in which something may not be commended. Harsh criticism and dogmatic direc-

tions should seldom be given. His aim is to secure the improvement of teachers as he finds them, and the teacher should leave with a feeling of encouragement and with some constructive suggestions.

In addition to the personal interview, group discussions and faculty meetings play an important part. The checking list for supervision given later in this chapter might serve as a basis for a series of faculty meetings running through an entire year, in which the various topics may be made to parallel the points of emphasis in supervision from week to week.

4. *Coöperation of teachers.* The discussion of the follow-up has anticipated the fourth requisite of the program of supervision, the securing of a spirit of coöperation on the part of the members of the teaching staff. Any misapprehension or suspicion as to the purpose of supervision will soon be removed when teachers are convinced that the principal sincerely desires to help them improve and is not concerned primarily with determining their fitness for promotion or discharge. He must avoid giving the impression that he regards a single observation as sufficient for determining the quality of a teacher's work. He should not fail to note and express his appreciation of specific evidences of improvement. Through individual and group conferences he should patiently seek to improve the professional attitude and teaching skill of his staff, especially recognizing evidences of initiative or special effort on the part of individuals. He should make available any helpful material which he comes across in his reading and should encourage his teachers to read widely in their special fields. Especially should he encourage individual teachers and departments to try new materials of instruction or teaching devices and should coöperate in every possible way in developing an experimental attitude in his staff. Such a program of supervision cannot fail to secure an enthusiastic response, and it will cause petty jealousies or complacent satisfaction with mediocre attainment to be replaced with real professional zeal.

5. *The testing of results.* The last part of a program for improving instruction, but by no means the least important, is the testing of results. If supervision results in the improvement of instruction, the amount of improvement can be measured. It is not sufficient to draw subjective conclusions as to the results of supervision; valid conclusions can be reached only by careful quantitative measurements. Subject-matter tests are available in several subjects of the curriculum, and others are rapidly appearing, which, when standardized by use, will furnish reliable instruments for measuring school products. Careful records of achievement should be made at stated intervals for comparison of pupils' progress and of the work of different teachers and departments. Changes in subject-matter organization or in methods of instruction should thus be compared to determine their relative effectiveness. The principal should realize that his success as a supervisor can be shown only by the carefully measured results of the instruction in his school. The last chapter is devoted to the subject of testing and supplements the brief discussion given at this point.

**A checking list for supervision.** The accompanying checking list for the supervision of instruction has grown out of a course given by the author in Teachers College, New York. It attempts to enumerate the most important elements of good classroom management, of the selection and arrangement of subject matter, and of the technique of teaching. Some readers may note the omission of items which they think should be included; others may think it is too detailed or that proper balance has not been maintained in its organization. It is submitted as the sort of analysis which will prove helpful both to the supervisor and to the teachers whose improvement is desired. It should be observed that this checking list does not undertake to determine the relative importance of the several items enumerated or to provide for definite rating of the teacher. Its purpose is simply to aid supervising officers and

teachers by giving a detailed analysis of the elements of good teaching as a basis for individual reflection and group discussion. In order to give greater objectiveness to the various items, the accompanying set of standards has been drawn up, the numbers corresponding to those of the checking list.

The material is the result of a classroom project to which the various members, all experienced teachers, made their individual contributions. After long and detailed discussion it was thoroughly tested in tentative form. The entire group observed several actual recitations of high-school classes, using convenient portions of the list. After some facility had thus been secured, the entire checking list was used upon a single class recitation, and individual scorings were made and preserved. After this group observation each student made ten individual observations and records; then a second group observation was made, and the results were compared with the first. It was found that the time required for recording the results of the observation was greatly diminished and that there was a marked gain in uniformity between the scores of the separate items. The material was then thoroughly revised in its present form on the basis of its repeated use.

Such a checking list can be made most valuable by placing copies in the hands of each teacher and asking each one to check himself on the various items. The principal himself should similarly check his teachers. It is, of course, unwise for him to do this while actually observing teachers at work, as this procedure would prove a hindrance to both supervisor and teacher. Its chief value lies in the objectiveness which it gives to observation and to the interview with the teacher which follows. Teachers themselves should be encouraged to observe other teachers at work, not of course for the purpose of rating each other, but for the effect which critical observation of the defects and virtues of others will have upon their own methods. Copies of this checking list may be secured from the Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.



## CHECKING LIST FOR SUPERVISION OF INSTRUCTION

TEACHER \_\_\_\_\_

DATE \_\_\_\_\_

SUBJECT \_\_\_\_\_

Check in one of the three columns A, B, C. If a sufficient number of teachers are observed (say 50), approximately 20 per cent should be checked A, 20 per cent C, and 60 per cent B. If a given feature does not appear, check in the column "No."

I. CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT	No	A	B	C	REMARKS
1. Was proper attention given to lighting? to temperature? to ventilation?					
2. Was the equipment of the rooms (for example, desks, blackboard, etc.) in good order?					
3. Was there sufficient supplementary material (for example, maps, books, etc.)?					
4. Were supplementary materials effectively arranged?					
5. Was the teacher well qualified physically?					
6. Was the teacher's voice pleasing and her enunciation clear?					
7. Was the teacher's dress suitable?					
8. Were the teacher's manners suitable?					
9. Did the teacher use correct English?					
10. Did the teacher show evidences of possession of the following qualities in a desirable degree?					
<i>a.</i> Self-control					
<i>b.</i> Tact					
<i>c.</i> Decisiveness					
<i>d.</i> Enthusiasm					
<i>e.</i> Resourcefulness					
<i>f.</i> Sympathy					
<i>g.</i> Fair-mindedness					

STANDARDS FOR THE CHECKING LIST FOR SUPERVISION  
OF INSTRUCTION

- I. Classroom management.** Effective classroom management is based on the assumption that the most important activity of the teacher is teaching; of the pupil, learning; and that whatever interferes with these activities is to be avoided as waste.
1. Light should come from the left side of the pupil. There should be easily adjustable window shades. Artificial light should be available whenever it is needed. The temperature should be maintained at from 68 to 70 degrees, with humidity about 50 per cent. Suitable ventilation should be provided for. The teacher is responsible for securing the most favorable conditions which the facilities provided make possible.
  2. Teacher's and pupils' desks should be kept neat and orderly. Chalk troughs and blackboards should be kept clean.
  3. Classrooms should be provided with usable materials for illustration, demonstration, or application in the various subjects.
  4. Maps, books, exhibits, laboratory material, etc. should be arranged attractively and conveniently for use when they are needed.
  5. Strong physique and good health are essential to continuous success in teaching.
  6. A pleasing, well-modulated voice and clear enunciation are important qualifications for teaching.
  7. Appropriate dress is such as attracts no attention to itself.
  8. The teacher's manners should conform to the best social standards.
  9. The teacher's speech should conform to the best standards of grammar and good usage.
  10. Among the qualities desirable in teachers the following are important:
    - a. *Self-control*: the ability to maintain a well-balanced poise.
    - b. *Tact*: the ability to handle all sorts and conditions of people with skill and discernment.
    - c. *Decisiveness*: the ability to make a decision promptly and stick to it.
    - d. *Enthusiasm*: an invaluable tonic for both teacher and pupils.
    - e. *Resourcefulness*: the ability to turn an unexpected situation to good use.
    - f. *Sympathy*: the ability to understand and appreciate the point of view of another person.
    - g. *Fair-mindedness*: the ability to think impersonally and to act justly.

I. CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT (Continued)	No	A	B	C	REMARKS
11. Did the class work begin and end on time?					
12. Was attendance taken economically?					
13. Were laboratory, shop, or other materials efficiently handled?					
14. Was provision made for seating pupils with defective sight or hearing or other physical differences?					
15. Did pupils enter, leave, and move about the room in an appropriate manner?					
16. Was the posture of pupils good?					
17. Did the work of the class proceed smoothly and sequentially?					
18. Were pupils' responses well directed and expressed?					
19. Was the attention of the entire class keen and continuous?					
20. Did good order inhere in the situation without apparent compulsion?					
21. Was the group characterized by an attitude of courtesy and coöperation toward all its members?					

11. The recitation should begin and end on time. Businesslike procedure saves time and imparts a good tone to the recitation.
12. Attendance should be taken quietly and with dispatch by the teacher or a monitor. A seating-plan of the class facilitates this. There should never be an oral roll call after the first day.
13. Laboratory and shop materials should be stored, distributed, and accounted for in such a way as to avoid waste and to make them available when and where they are needed. The distribution and collection of papers and other material should take as little time as possible and cause the least possible disturbance to the orderly progress of class work.
14. Pupils with defective sight or hearing should be placed so as to relieve the defect as far as possible. Any other special cases should receive appropriate attention.
15. Pupils should enter and leave the room in an orderly and natural manner. Moving about the room or to the blackboard should be without confusion or disturbance.
16. Pupils should sit without slouching, in an attitude conducive to attention; when they stand they should not lean upon the desk.
17. The work of the class should proceed without interruption, one step following another in orderly sequence.
18. When pupils are speaking they should address the group, not the teacher only, with clear enunciation and loud enough for all to hear.
19. The attention of the class to the work in hand should be keen and sustained throughout the period.
20. There should be no apparent effort on the part of the teacher to maintain discipline. In case individuals need attention, the skillful teacher handles the situation with a maximum of effect upon the individual.
21. In their interaction toward individuals and the entire group, teacher and pupils alike should at all times exhibit courtesy and a desire to cooperate.

II. SELECTION AND ARRANGEMENT OF SUBJECT MATTER	No	A	B	C	REMARKS
1. Was the subject matter related to the social needs of the pupils?					
2. Was the subject matter adapted to the abilities of the group?					
3. Was the material arranged with regard to the relative importance of the different topics?					
4. Was effective use made of materials from other sources than the text-book?					
III. THE RECITATION					
<i>A. Aim</i>					
1. Did the teacher have a clear and worthy aim for the lesson?					
2. Was the lesson well planned to secure this?					
3. Was the teacher resourceful in adapting unexpected developments to her plan?					
4. Was the aim attained?					
<i>B. Divisions of the recitation</i>					
1. Was the time effectively divided between (1) testing and drill upon the previous assignment, (2) assignment of new material, (3) directed work or study on the new assignment?					
2. Was the work on the previous assignment mastered by the group?					
3. Was the new assignment clear and definite? well motivated?					



## II. *Selection and arrangement of subject matter.*

1. Subject matter of instruction should have relation to the social needs of the pupils.
2. Subject matter should be adapted to the capacities of the particular group under instruction.
3. In the selection and arrangement of material regard should be had for the relative values of different parts or topics. Not everything within a given subject is of equal importance.
4. The textbook should be supplemented by material from other books and periodicals and from the experience of teacher and pupils.

## III. *The recitation.*

### *A. Aim.*

1. For every lesson the teacher should have a clear, definite, and worth-while aim, which should be recognized by the pupils.
2. Each lesson should be carefully planned to secure the aim set up.
3. In the progress of the recitation many things may come up that were not anticipated. The resourceful teacher shows good judgment in deciding what to follow up as worth while and what to pass by as irrelevant to the lesson plan.
4. The effective teacher finishes the period with the aim of the lesson accomplished.

### *B. Divisions of the recitation.*

1. There are three important phases of the recitation, not all of which necessarily appear in a single recitation period:
  - a. The recitation on the previous assignment, the purpose of which is to test the mastery of the assignment and to fix the principles involved through practice.
  - b. The assignment, the purpose of which is to prepare the class for the next step in the progress of the work.
  - c. Directed study, providing for the immediate application of the assignment.
2. If the new material has been developed properly in the assignment, the class should show mastery of the work assigned.
3. The new assignment should be clearly and definitely stated. It may be given orally or on mimeographed sheets or be written on the blackboard. It is important that pupils make a record of the specific requirements to be prepared.

III. THE RECITATION (Continued)	No	A	B	C	REMARKS
4. Did the assignment grow naturally out of the previous work?					
5. Did the assignment involve activity of the group?					
6. Did the assignment include helpful suggestions as to methods of study?					
7. If the assignment was followed by directed study, could pupils apply the assignment successfully?					
8. Did the teacher give effective assistance to individual pupils in the directed study?					
<i>C. Teaching devices</i>					
1. Were all pupils kept busy throughout the entire period?					
2. Was there proper balance between teacher activity and pupil activity?					
3. Was emphasis placed upon the formation of proper habits rather than upon the acquisition of facts?					
4. Was the proper amount of drill given to secure mastery of necessary skills and facts?					
5. Was the drill interesting and participated in by all?					
6. Was the number of questions asked during the period such as would give the best results?					
7. Were the questions well distributed among the members of the group?					

4. The new assignment should grow naturally out of the work already done.
5. If the assignment involves the development of new material, it is made much more interesting and effective by securing the activity of the group in its development.
6. The teacher should give much thought to the best ways of learning and should give helpful suggestions to pupils on how to study. To be really helpful these suggestions must be specific.
7. The test of a good assignment is the ability of the group to take up the preparation of the assignment successfully.
8. In directed or supervised study the teacher should aim to give assistance in such a way as to increase the pupil's ability to work independently.

*C. Teaching devices.*

1. All pupils should be kept busy on some purposeful activity all the time.
2. Teachers are likely to talk too much. Pupil activity is more important than teacher activity.
3. The formation of good habits is the most important result that can be secured from teaching. Among desirable habits are having material ready for work, prompt attack, close attention, clear definition of every problem. To these the teacher can add a great many others, for the best means of forming which he should give directions accompanied by drill.
4. Drill should not be for too long periods. It is more effective if it is repeated at increasing intervals until complete mastery is secured.
5. Drill should be interesting and shared by all. Various devices such as flash cards, timed practice exercises, concert work, etc. add zest and variety.
6. The number of questions suitable to a given recitation is contingent upon various factors: the nature of the subject, the aim of the lesson, the age of the pupils, etc. The criterion in a given instance must be based upon the principle that the object of questioning is to secure the largest possible amount of purposeful activity on the part of the pupils.
7. Questions should be distributed in such a way as to secure the continuous attention of all and to equalize the opportunity for participation. The varying abilities of pupils should not lead to differences in the number of questions, but in the character of the questions given to each.

III. THE RECITATION (Continued)	No	A	B	C	REMARKS
8. Were the questions correct in technique ("yes" or "no" questions, repeating question or answer, addressing questions to group, etc.)?					
9. Were the questions well expressed?					
10. Did the pupils ask questions indicating spontaneous interest?					
11. Was sufficient emphasis given to questions requiring thought in contrast to those requiring only information?					
12. Did the pupils show that they had been taught how to attack and solve a problem?					
13. Did the questions follow in orderly sequence?					
14. Did the pupils show ability to give well-developed topical responses to questions requiring such answers?					
15. Was the laboratory work conducted without waste of time?					
16. Was the laboratory work purposeful (that is, did it involve thinking by pupils instead of merely following directions)?					

What features of the recitation were most commendable?

What features were most in need of remedy?

8. Good questioning technique excludes " yes " or " no " questions unless they are followed by " why," leading questions, repetition of questions or of pupils' answers.
9. Questions should be clearly expressed in good English so as to be understood without explanation or amendment.
10. Spontaneous interest is indicated by the number and character of the questions which the pupils themselves ask.
11. Questions calling for information are of value in testing and drill and for the purpose of assembling pertinent facts in the development of new material. Effective teaching includes many questions which demand thought in the solution of problems based upon the application of principles and facts already acquired.
12. The principal elements in the solution of a problem are
  - a. Defining the problem and keeping it clearly in mind.
  - b. Recalling related ideas, analysis of the situation, and application of principles which apply.
  - c. Evaluation, by suspending judgment, selecting and rejecting suggestions, and verifying conclusions.
  - d. Systematic organization of material.
13. The questions should bear an obvious relation to one another and should follow an orderly sequence.
14. Pupils should develop the ability and be given the opportunity to make extended, well-organized answers without suggestions or interruptions.
15. Laboratory work should be conducted without waste of time by the group or by individuals. It is not always necessary that every experiment should be performed by all. Demonstration by the teacher or by individual pupils is often better.
16. Laboratory work should emphasize the solution of problems rather than following directions.



**Summary.** This chapter has undertaken to present for the principal a usable, though somewhat restricted, program of supervision. It is based on the assumption that instruction is the most important activity of the school and that consequently the improvement of instruction is the most important end to be secured by the principal. His program must include time for supervision, a detailed knowledge of the teaching process, a technique of supervision, and the testing of results. Supervision should always be above the level of inspection and should never be confused with rating for the purposes of promotion or discharge. Its aim should be understood by all the members of the staff to be the improvement of teachers in service. Conceived and carried out consistently with this aim, supervision becomes a constructive force in the development of professional group spirit and improved practice in teaching.

### PROBLEMS AND QUESTIONS

1. How may a principal convince his superintendent or board that he needs relief from administrative routine in order to supervise instruction?
2. How many hours a day should a principal devote to supervision in a school of two hundred pupils? of eight hundred?
3. What difficulties is the principal of small experience likely to encounter in supervision? How shall he meet them?
4. There are many routine factors in supervision, such as the position of the supervisor in the classroom. Suggest five such factors with the standards you would recommend in each.
5. Outline a plan of supervision in detail for a school employing fifteen teachers in which there has been no supervision by the principal.
6. Outline a plan for testing the results of supervision over a period of two years.
7. Criticize the checking list with respect to (1) its length, (2) its organization, (3) items to be omitted or added.
8. What effect should you expect the extended use of the checking list to produce in (1) the principal? (2) the teachers?

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## CHAPTER XIX

### SUPERVISED STUDY

It has long been customary for teachers at each stage from the elementary school to the college to justify the inadequate results of their instruction by complaining of the poor preparation with which pupils come from the grade below. This is frequently summed up in the statement that pupils do not know how to study. This is undoubtedly true in most cases, and in the rare instances in which pupils have good study habits, these can rarely be traced to conscious training by their teachers in the art of study. It is doubtful whether most teachers are capable of giving clear directions as to the best ways to study the lessons which they assign.

The commonly accepted method of the classroom has been to use the period in testing the preparation of an assignment made (often hurriedly and without comment or direction) at the close of the previous recitation. This method of meager assignment of work for home study, followed by a period of testing on the next day, has failed to take into account two very important factors: (1) individual differences in the capacities of pupils and (2) the futility of much of what is called home study. The fact of individual differences has been discussed in a former chapter and is recognized by all. Tasks which would be suitable for the brighter pupils of the ordinary class are quite beyond the power of the weaker members to accomplish. Pupils go to the study hall or to their homes with assignments (frequently indefinite and usually beyond the capacity of the slower members of the class) which they are expected to prepare under conditions often so unhygienic or distracting as to preclude success even if the assignment were

clearly understood and within their capacity. On the following day the recitation is conducted on the assumption that the tasks have been performed, although the teacher may very well know that some of the pupils have not prepared the assignment at all, and others have done so by means commonly regarded as dishonest. And so the vicious round has gone on, with a few pupils gaining mastery over the material, others acquiring loose or dishonest habits of work, and many falling by the wayside, discouraged, to join the ranks of the eliminated. Recently, however, the responsibility of teachers for training pupils in right habits of study is coming to be recognized. The acceptance of this responsibility has been practically coincident with the development of the junior high school. Within a decade there has appeared in the journals a wealth of material on the subject of supervised study, mainly descriptive of administrative devices employed in different schools, in addition to the volumes by Hall-Quest and Miller and a few books devoted to methods employed in specific subjects.

**Administration of supervised study.** Supervised study introduces a new element into the recitation period — the preparation in the classroom, under the direction of the teacher, of the whole or a part of the work given in the assignment of the day. The class period thus consists of three parts: the recitation or drill on the previous assignment, the new assignment, and the supervised study of the new assignment. It has naturally been felt that the class period of forty minutes formerly employed was too short, and this has been lengthened to sixty minutes in a large number of schools, and some employ periods as long as ninety minutes. While supervised study is more often found in the junior high school, many four-year high schools have also lengthened their periods to sixty minutes to make provision for its use, giving up the long-established method of scheduling double periods for laboratory subjects. It is interesting to note that in the time

table of the French Lycée, whose work extends two years beyond our high school, the class periods are from one to one and one-half hours in length in all subjects. Instead of lengthening the periods, or in some cases in addition to this procedure, some schools have at the end of the day an extra study period to which are assigned those pupils who seem to need special attention. This method often leads to difficulty in that pupils frequently show weakness, and are assigned to the special study period, in more than one subject.

The most common practice is to divide the day into six periods of one hour each, thus providing for supervised study in each class exercise. While this adds to the scheduled teaching time in actual minutes daily, teachers are not found to object where a good technique for the longer period has been worked out; on the contrary, they welcome the change from the hurried and less satisfactory teaching of the shorter period. The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools has given its approval of the lengthened period in a resolution which declares: "Additional time added to the recitation period as defined under present North Central Association standards, for the purpose of supervised study, shall not be interpreted to mean a double period but a single recitation-study period."

It is rightly felt that the junior high school, so far as secondary education is concerned, is the field where pupils can best be trained in habits of study. Fortunately for this purpose the organization and subject matter of instruction in this new type of school is less stereotyped and subject to traditional control than in the old four-year school. In the junior high school the lengthened period is almost universally employed, sometimes extending to the double period of eighty or more minutes. In the light of such investigations of the results secured through supervised study as are available, it is very doubtful whether periods of more than sixty minutes, involving, as they must, an increase in the number of teachers



required and consequent additional expense, can be justified. Furthermore, as will be shown later, where all the required work is done under the supervision of teachers the results seem to be beneficial to only a part of the pupils and to be of less value, perhaps even harmful, to other pupils. However, some excellent schools have adopted the double-period plan, and it is possible that an improved technique may be shown by later investigation to have remedied these defects. Such a plan of organization, with four eighty-minute periods with a shifting period on four days of each week, is described in a recent book.<sup>1</sup> By this plan, with each class meeting four times each week, there is really provided the equivalent of a five-period day with but four periods on any single day.

With teachers unaccustomed to conducting supervised study it is difficult to secure a proper use of the lengthened period. The tendency is for them to use the additional time for an extension of the recitation-drill method, to which they have been accustomed and of which we have already had too much. To prevent this the plan is frequently adopted of having a signal at the middle of the period or at some other set time at which supervised study is to begin. If this method assured the change in procedure contemplated, it would be better than the evil which it is intended to prevent; but observation in schools in which it is employed reveals the fact that teachers can become quite oblivious to the signal. Furthermore, such mechanical division of time is altogether irrational, since the time for supervised study to begin can be properly determined only by careful discrimination on the part of the teacher and may vary with each lesson as it is presented. Proper administration must begin with a program of education of the teaching staff, by which they will have a clear understanding of the aims of supervised study and the methods by which these are to be secured, to be followed by careful and continuous supervision of the teacher's work. Without such preparation and

<sup>1</sup> Johnston, Newlon, and Pickell, *Junior-Senior High School Administration*.

supervision, supervised study is likely not to result in much of value but rather to add to the condemnation which has attended the unfortunate attempts to introduce it in many schools.

There is a tendency in the junior high school to assign no home work but to complete each day's assignment in class. There is no doubt that under skillful instruction the class as a whole may accomplish in this manner as much work as under the home-study class-testing method, and perhaps more. But there are other considerations than the completion of an amount of work which has been arbitrarily allotted for a given semester or year. It is the function of the school to project itself into the life of the pupil outside the walls of the school building and to provide compelling motives for the proper use of the time not directly under school control. An important outcome of education must be the habit of using one's leisure time worthily. The formal work in any subject may well be confined to the class period, but pupils should be led to a much wider reading of material related to the various subjects or to the following up of related projects to a degree which is impossible in the limited time of the class schedule. Careful planning and great skill are here necessary in directing individual pupils in accordance with their natural abilities and interests. In schools in which specific assignments of home work are made, it is important to make regulations that prevent excessive requirements on any day. It is sometimes found advantageous to make a schedule by which home assignments in the different subjects are confined to certain days: for example, English, Monday; mathematics, Tuesday; social studies, Wednesday; science, Thursday; foreign language, Friday.

**Method of supervised study.** In discussing the method of supervised study it is necessary to get rid of the notion that the term is applied to a new discovery in the field of method. It is nothing of the sort. Supervised study, at its best, is only

good teaching; at its worst, it is a bungling attempt to improve poor teaching by arbitrary and mechanical devices. Laboratory work in science, class work in industrial and other arts, and even instruction in the more formal subjects, such as English and mathematics, may furnish the best possible examples of supervised study, even though no lengthened period or formal division of time is employed and the term "supervised study" is never heard in the school.

Supervised study emphasizes two elements of the recitation: the assignment, and work in class upon the assignment. It would be an enlightening experiment for any teacher who has not already tried it, to assign a lesson and immediately to direct the class to begin its preparation. Breslich reports his experience with a class in mathematics in the University of Chicago High School, as follows:

In assigning the next lesson, suggestions were given with unusual care. The pupils were then told that the next fifteen minutes would be given to studying the lesson, and that they should begin the assigned home work immediately. The experiment showed at once that the pupils did not appreciate the value of limited time, for all were slow in beginning work. It took some of them the whole fifteen minutes to go through the technique of getting started. Several evidently were not in the habit of working alone, for they looked about helplessly and simply imitated the others. However, these same pupils had come to the classroom daily with the lessons well prepared. Very little was accomplished in the fifteen minutes, indicating that the pupils very probably wasted much time in studying their assignments of home work. Although the class had been in the high school only a short time, the teacher had been presupposing a habit of study which did not exist.

In this case an excellent teacher, giving suggestions for the preparation of the lesson with unusual care, found that several pupils were unable to get any work done in fifteen minutes. If we consider that pupils are assigned lessons in four or more subjects each day, and that the assignments are frequently made hurriedly and without any suggestions as to methods of study, we can see how unfounded is the expect-

tation that any great number of them will gain a mastery of the materials taught or will acquire effective habits of study.

Too much weight, then, cannot be given to the assignment. This should be planned with the greatest care by the teacher and should include, wherever needed, directions as to the best methods of study. The place of the assignment need not be at the beginning of the period; in fact, if there is to be drill upon work already done, this should usually begin the recitation. The assignment should follow this drill, with the imperative requirement that there be time enough not only for the assignment but also for its immediate application to the new work in class.

It is to this directed application of the assignment that the term "supervised study" strictly belongs. The technique to be used varies in different subjects and with the organization of different schools. The literature of the subject offers many and sometimes conflicting suggestions. Two general principles only will be discussed at this point.

*In supervised study the teacher is dealing with individuals, not a group.* The object, then, is to discover and remove the difficulties of the individual pupil. The class should be taught to begin work immediately, each for himself. Pupils should be required to come to class with all the materials they will need in suitable condition for use. When class work begins, it is better for the teacher to go from pupil to pupil, observing the work of each and giving assistance as needed in such a way as not to disturb others. Where pupils are allowed to go to the teacher or to indicate their need of help by calling out or raising the hand, the habit of giving up easily is encouraged. The teacher will soon learn to know who are likely to need her help, and can get to them with little delay. If the assignment has been given well, it should not be necessary for the teacher to address the group until the directed study is finished. If she finds her instruction has not been effective with a con-

siderable number, she may stop the work and supplement her assignment where it has been found to be unsatisfactory. The occasions for this should be fewer as her technique improves. While the teacher will devote most attention to the slower pupils, the abler ones should not be overlooked in the conduct of supervised study. The teacher should see to it that the most competent pupils are given work that will demand their best efforts and thus prevent their forming bad habits of study.

*Supervised study should constantly increase the pupil's ability to work independently.* Supervised study has often been criticized on the ground that it tends to make pupils dependent upon the teacher. It might be said that it only substitutes dependence upon the teacher for dependence upon less reliable support. There is here, however, a real danger against which the teacher must guard. It is enough to say that she must give assistance only when it is needed, and then in such a manner as will tend to make the pupil finally independent of her help. This demands the highest skill and resourcefulness of which the teacher is capable. She must realize, as in all her teaching, that what we want the pupil to secure is not a correct answer to a problem, but a habit of attack and a method of thinking when he is confronted by a problem.

The application of these two principles will differ widely in different subjects. There is need of detailed treatment of the technique to be employed in different fields before really effective results can be secured. Encouraging work is being done and some material is already available, such as the books of McGregor and Simpson and Tryon's chapter on Teaching Pupils to study History, in his "Teaching of History in Junior and Senior High Schools."

Observation of supervised study as practiced in some classrooms indicates the necessity of saying that its aim is not to provide rest periods for teachers or opportunities for correct-



ing themes: the teacher must be constantly alert and must employ all the skill at her command in the direction of individuals as their difficulties arise.

*The study hall.* Although supervised study is ordinarily used only in connection with classroom work as a part of the recitation period, reference should be made also to the study hall or session room, in which pupils are usually expected to prepare a part of their assigned tasks. It has been customary to send pupils to these study rooms during the periods when they are not in class and to place them in charge of teachers who are free from teaching at those periods. Teachers are usually selected for this duty who are good at "keeping order," and the expression adequately explains their function. The schedule of the better schools is doing away with much of the difficulty of study-room control by increasing the time which pupils spend in the classroom, under instruction. There is, however, still a place for study in miscellaneous and larger groups which the principal must consider in his effort to make his school as effective as possible. So far as mere control is concerned, by placing the responsibility for the necessary routine upon some of their number pupils can be trained to take care of themselves quite as well as when they are under the watchful eye of a teacher. They are thus receiving, in addition to their study, important lessons in self-direction. But the teacher in charge of the study hall and the school librarian may supplement greatly the efforts of the classroom teacher in training pupils how to study. Some schools now have teachers specially trained for the purpose, who teach no classes, but give their whole time to the direction of these larger study groups. Miss Hannah Logasa of the University of Chicago High School has devoted herself not merely to the ordinary duties of a librarian, but has made constant effort to improve the study habits of the individual pupils. In this school the library is the study hall. During the author's principalship Miss Logasa made regular reports of the study

habits of the pupils which were invaluable in diagnosing the causes of unsatisfactory work.

*Teaching pupils how to study.* In developing a useful technique for supervised study the laws of learning must be studied and reduced to terms which may be applied in specific situations. Dewey has given us the best treatment of the thinking process which should underlie good study. Several books have undertaken to give detailed directions for study for the use both of pupils and of teachers. Some principals have found it possible to secure the interest of their entire staffs in the problem by having the teachers of each subject propose detailed suggestions as to the most effective method of studying their respective subjects. In connection with the development of supervised study in the University of Chicago High School, a committee of the faculty formulated the following general study helps.

#### STUDY HELPS

(For Students in the University of Chicago High School)

The habits of study formed in school are of greater importance than the subjects mastered. The following suggestions, if carefully followed, will help you make your mind an efficient tool. Your daily aim should be to learn your lesson in less time, or to learn it better in the same time.

1. Make out a definite daily program, arranging for a definite time for each study. You will thus form the habit of concentrating your thoughts on the subject at that time.

2. Provide yourself with the material the lesson requires; have on hand maps, ruler, compass, special paper needed, etc.

3. Understand the lesson assignment. Learn to take notes of the suggestions given by the teacher when the lesson is assigned. Take down accurately any references given by the teacher. Should a reference be of special importance, star (\*) it so that you may readily find it. Pick out the important topics of the lesson before beginning your study.

4. In the proper use of a textbook the following devices will be found helpful: index, appendix, footnotes, maps, illustrations, vocabulary, etc. Learn to use your textbook, as it will help you to use other books. Therefore understand the purpose of the devices named above and use them freely.

5. Do not lose time getting ready for study. Sit down and begin to work at once. Concentrate on your work; that is, put your mind on it and let nothing disturb you. Have the will to learn.

6. In many kinds of work it is best to go over the lesson quickly, then to go over it again carefully. For example, before beginning to solve a problem in mathematics read it through and be sure you understand what is to be proved before beginning its solution; in translating a foreign language read the passage through and see how much you can understand before consulting the vocabulary.

7. Do individual study. Learn to form your own judgments, to work out your own problems. Individual study is honest study.

8. Try to put the facts you are learning into practical use if possible. Apply them to present-day conditions. Illustrate them in terms familiar to you.

9. Take an interest in the subjects taught in school. Read the periodical literature concerning these. Talk to your parents about your school work. Discuss with them points that interest you.

10. Review your lessons frequently. If there were points you did not understand, the review will help you to master them.

11. Prepare each lesson every day. The habit of meeting each requirement punctually is of extreme importance.

These study helps were printed on paper with gummed back and were pasted by the pupil inside the front cover of every textbook which he used. They were made the subject of frequent classroom discussions to bring out their application to the work in hand. Occasional oral or written themes on subjects related to their use were called for in English classes. The results upon both pupils and teachers were valuable in calling attention to effective methods of study. But it should be clearly understood that the mere formulation of directions for study can work no permanent or even very important temporary results. Only by constant and specific insistence upon correct methods of work can we expect to establish good study habits.

**Results of supervised study.** Very little reliable material is available to show the results of supervised study. In the literature of the subject many statements of opinion, mostly favorable, may be found. A number of statistical studies have

been made, based on percentages of promotion and failure. Breed cites five of these, showing a diminution of failure after the introduction of supervised study. He makes the reasonable point that the assumption that there is a very close correspondence between rate of promotion and rate of improvement lacks verification. He makes the further statement, not supported by evidence, that this assumption will probably be found invalid. If supervised study makes for better learning, it should certainly bring about a decrease in the percentage of failure. However, such statistical studies as have been made only suggest, but do not prove, decreased failure as a result of supervised study.

There have been a few controlled experiments to test the effect of supervised study. Breslich makes the following report of such an experiment in the University of Chicago High School.

To measure the effect of home study upon class progress the following experiment was tried in the Department of Mathematics of the University High School, The University of Chicago. No home work was assigned in one section, so that the time usually taken up with the discussion of home work was gained for study. In another class, taking the same work, home work was assigned. The method of instruction in both sections was the same. Both sections spent fourteen lessons on the chapter on "Simultaneous Linear Equations," at the end of which the same test was given to both with the following results:

	A	B	C	D	F	AVERAGE
Section A (home work with no supervised study) .	7.1	21.4	21.4	0	50	62.8
Section B (supervised study with no home work) .	0	6.2	37.5	25	31.2	65.5

The low grades received in both classes may be explained by the fact that the test was not easy and that no review was given in preparation for the test. If the time had allowed it, a second and fairer test would have been given.

Some idea as to the relative ability of these classes can be obtained from the results of the departmental final examination given at the end of the preceding semester. The grades were distributed as follows:

	A	B	C	D	F	AVERAGE
Section A . . . . .	25	25	37.5	12.5	0	81.4
Section B . . . . .	29.4	23.5	23.5	17.7	5.9	79.4

It is seen that Section B, though a little weaker than Section A, came out a little stronger on the average after supervised study without home work. The poorer students profited particularly by this method. Supervision seems to have enabled pupils at least to make up for the loss due to lack of assigned home work. The average amount of time spent on home work in Section A was one hour and fifteen minutes per lesson. However, when the number of problems worked in each section was counted, it was found that in Section A the average number of problems per pupil was two less than in Section B. These results indicate that the amount of home work may be reduced in high-school classes, provided a method of instruction more effective than the common method is used.

It was interesting to notice the progress of the class working under supervision. At first the class was very slow, and it did not get along as rapidly as the other section. During the third lesson, however, it became evident that the pupils were learning to work independently. After the fourth lesson both classes were doing the same work, and they were kept together for the remainder of the time that the chapter selected was being studied.

The section with supervision worked with more confidence and pleasure. This was especially true of the slow pupils. A girl who had failed during the first semester and was in the class on condition made a grade of 78 in the test on this chapter. Her grade in the final examination at the end of the first semester had been only 40. A boy who barely received a passing grade at the end of the first semester, and who at first seemed to be unable to do anything under supervision, suddenly found that with a little greater effort he could do as well as his classmates. There was an immediate improvement, and one day when a speed test was given he surprised everybody, even himself, by leading the class. A girl returning after a week's illness, and still in a weakened condition, said she "could not understand anything that was said," and felt greatly discouraged. By giving her a little more attention than the other pupils she was enabled to do the work before the end of the recitation, and had no further difficulty. Under the common system of instruction very little attention



is paid to such cases. The teacher usually allows a certain amount of time in which the pupil must "catch up." Very often, in addition to the difficulties found in understanding the class work, "back work" is assigned. The injustice of all this at times drives some pupils to use dishonest means of getting possession of all this required work.

The following chapter, on "Operations with Fractions," was covered by both classes in six lessons. However, Section A now worked under supervision, and Section B took home work. A test was given to both classes as soon as the chapter was completed. The grades in this test were as follows:

	A	B	C	D	F	AVERAGE
Section A . . . .	31.2	25	18.7	12.5	12.5	77.5
Section B . . . .	52.9	23.5	5.9	11.8	5.7	86.4

The average amount of time per lesson spent on home work was thirty-six minutes. The number of problems could not be computed, because much oral work was done in Section A, but there was very little difference. The power obtained by Section B in the preceding chapter, while working under supervision, persisted and was strong enough to be helpful in the following chapter.

Before any final conclusions can be drawn, evidently further experimental work is needed. The results of the foregoing tests, however, corroborate the impression received during the time the study of these classes was being made. Both classes accomplished the same work within the regulation time, although Section B did no home work and Section A spent an hour and fifteen minutes daily on the assigned lesson. Section B, the weaker section at the end of the first semester, came out stronger than Section A, after nearly three weeks of supervised study, and proved to be still stronger during the study of the next chapter. In both classes progress under the new method was very slow at first, but there was rapid improvement.

After these experiments in the Department of Mathematics in the University of Chicago High School, some of the instructors there practically omitted home work, because their experience showed that better results could be obtained by giving the time of the class period to class work on the part of the pupil rather than to reciting the lesson. In the final departmental examination of the first-year classes the section

in which home work was minimized ranked second, while in the second-year and third-year courses the classes doing little home work ranked first. Thus with supervised study loss of home work did not retard the progress of these classes.

From this experiment it appears that of two classes of about equal ability covering the same material under the same teacher the one without home study, with all work done in class under supervision, accomplished with a slightly higher average of achievement as much as the other with home assignments conducted under the ordinary recitation method. A study of the data, together with the author's intimate knowledge of the details of the experiment, justifies the additional conclusion that some of the pupils of highest ability did not profit from the supervised study, whereas many of the poorer pupils showed improvement in a marked degree. The conclusion, however, does not follow that supervised study may not be made valuable for all pupils.

An experiment in Latin in the same school, in which the achievements of four sections conducted without home study for a semester were compared with those of another section conducted under the home-study-recitation method, showed similar results.

Breed reports an experiment conducted in fourteen Michigan high schools in first-year Latin, first-year algebra, and ninth-grade English composition, covering five hundred and ninety-six pupils in thirty-four classes and extending over a half-year. Comparable groups were paired, one being conducted for six weeks by the ordinary method of recitation, the other by the supervised-study method. At the end of this time uniform examinations were given to both groups. During the following six weeks, the methods were reversed with the groups. Periods of one hour or fifty minutes were used. With the supervised-study group the period was divided equally, one half for recitation, and the other half for assignment and supervised study.

Breed summarized his conclusions as follows:

1. On the basis of average results for whole classes, supervised study of the type tested was slightly less efficient in first-year algebra, was much less efficient in ninth-grade English composition, and was much more efficient in first-year Latin, than nonsupervision.

2. Supervised study of the kind tested facilitated the progress of the poorer pupils and, to a correspondingly greater degree, retarded the progress of the better pupils.

3. The divided-period and double-period plans should not be urged for general adoption in secondary schools until their efficiency is more clearly demonstrated.

4. Until the divided-period and double-period plans meet the objections urged against them, a selective or differential plan of study supervision should be favored by secondary schools; that is, a plan which concentrates on the pupils of less ability.

5. The technique of supervising the study of the poorer pupils needs to be improved; a technique of supervising the study of the brighter pupils needs to be developed.

The results of neither of these experiments are conclusive. The wider range of Breed's study indicates that much of the supervised study as conducted in the schools is not superior to the ordinary method of recitation and that some is actually inferior when measured by average class results. This is not surprising when we consider that in his experiment the teachers were substituting a new and untried technique for the one they had traditionally followed. The necessity for developing a method of supervised study through careful study and experiment is plainly indicated. Both experiments agree that the poorer pupils profit considerably, whereas the better ones fail to profit or are actually hindered by the methods employed. It does not follow that this result is inherent in the method: it rather indicates the need for a better adaptation of the instruction to the needs of pupils of different ranges of ability. The segregation of pupils of similar ability into differentiated groups should largely remedy this defect. There is need of further experiment under better-controlled conditions, including the use of mental tests to determine the abilities of the

groups compared. Such experiments should extend over several years in order to test different methods of supervision and the probable improvement of teachers as their experience gives them greater skill in supervising study.

**A working program.** The principal who wishes to put in operation a program of supervised study should realize that it is not enough to arrange a schedule of sixty-minute periods and to tell his teachers at the opening of the year to divide these into three equal parts, one each for recitation, assignment, and supervised study. Considerable time (a half-year at least) should be spent in preliminary discussion and formulation of plans. A committee, with a representative from each department, should prepare a report based on a reading of the literature of the subject and, where possible, on observation of the work in other schools. The report of this committee should be presented to the entire staff, and its discussion should take time enough to assure that all understand the aims and methods to be employed. The plan should finally be adopted by the faculty, who will thus be intelligently committed to its fulfillment. When the plan is put in operation, constant supervision is imperative, by heads of departments in larger schools and by the principal and his assistants in every school. This is most important in its early stages; for, however careful the preliminary preparation has been, there will be the greatest variability in the attitudes of teachers and in their ability to adapt their teaching to the new aims and methods. A successful program of supervised study demands an experimental attitude on the part of principal and teachers alike. As during the period of preparation, there should be frequent faculty discussions of methods and results. The preliminary committee should be continued and made responsible for the continuous improvement of the organization and methods as experience points the way. Finally, the program should include the testing of results, using for this purpose the instruments which scientific study is each year making more precise,

so that conclusions as to the value of supervised study will no longer be based upon mere opinion.

**Summary.** Supervised study aims to improve the study habits of pupils. It is not primarily a matter of school organization but of method of instruction. Its use depends neither upon the length of period nor upon a mechanical division of time. It may be employed in a period of any length, though experience indicates that a period of approximately sixty minutes is best. The essential elements are the assignment and its immediate application to class work. The assignment should be made with greater care and at greater length than is ordinarily given and should contain directions as to the best methods for its performance. It should be followed immediately by class work in which the teacher should give such direction and assistance as individual pupils need. In this two principles must be kept constantly in mind: (1) in supervised study the teacher is dealing with individuals, not a group; (2) supervised study should constantly increase the pupil's ability to work independently. Directions for effective study, based on the facts of hygiene and the laws of learning, should be formulated, and their specific application should be made to the various subjects of the curriculum. Such studies of results as have been made indicate the need of more attention to methods of supervision, with special attention to the needs of pupils of varying abilities.

### PROBLEMS AND QUESTIONS

1. Enumerate the hindrances to effective home study by pupils.
2. Give the essential features of some one of these plans for individualizing instruction: the Batavia plan; the Winnetka plan; the Dalton plan.
3. What special qualifications are needed by a study-hall teacher?
4. What are the essential features of the concentration-study hall described in Miss Parmenter's article referred to below?
5. Criticize the study helps of the University of Chicago High School.



6. Give five suggestions that you think would be helpful in the study of some subject of the curriculum. Make them specific, not general.
7. Why are the experiments reported by Breslich and Breed not convincing?
8. Suggest a plan for testing the results of supervised study.
9. Should the same plan of supervised study extend through Grades VII-XII? Support your answer.

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NOTE. A large number of articles on supervised study have appeared in recent years in educational journals, especially in the *School Review*, some of which contain valuable suggestions.

## CHAPTER XX

### TESTING AND THE IMPROVEMENT OF INSTRUCTION

The successful use of mental tests in the classification and assignment to specific duties of men in the army furnished the impetus for the remarkably rapid and extensive development of testing which has taken place in the procedure of schools of every grade since the war. The large number of tests published, the numerous books and articles in professional journals dealing with the subject, and the more popular discussions in current newspapers and magazines reveal an interest, both of the school people and of the general public, such as has seldom if ever been shown in any other phase of school procedure. It is exceedingly important that the principal should not be pushed off his feet, but should understand clearly the purposes which tests may serve and the limitations of their use.

**Purpose of testing.** The proper purpose of all school testing is the improvement of instruction. This is true whether tests are employed for purposes of organization and classification of pupils, for prognosis of probable success in different types of work in educational or vocational guidance, for diagnosis of specific strengths or weaknesses in a given subject, for determining the achievement of pupils for the sake of promotion, or for a study of the effectiveness of individual teachers, departments, or schools or of different types of material or methods of instruction. The principal must guard against the danger of undertaking a program of so-called scientific testing merely for the sake of seeming to be "up with the times," and the other danger of stopping when the tests have been given and the results have been reduced to statistical tables

and graphical representation. A testing program is valueless unless it includes a careful study of the results, followed by such modifications in administration and teaching as will tend to improve the results of instruction.

**Types of tests.** Two general types of test are recognized: (1) general-intelligence tests and (2) educational tests. Tests of both types are properly spoken of as "standardized" when they have been widely enough used to give reliable age or grade norms. The norms for some tests are based on many thousands of cases and may be regarded as fairly reliable for purposes of comparison. For many of the tests now available there are no such reliable norms, and to these the term "standardized" should not be applied.

1. *General-intelligence tests.* There are two forms of tests of general intelligence: (1) individual tests and (2) group tests. These designations indicate the difference between the two types. The Stanford Revision of the Binet-Simon scale is the most reliable and widely used individual test. There is a large number of group tests of which an annotated list prepared in 1922 by Professor Whipple, including forty-two titles with information concerning the compiler, the composition, the range of ages or grades covered, the time needed for administration, the publisher, the price, and sources of further information may be found in the Twenty-first Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. The World Book Company has issued a convenient booklet giving the most complete list of intelligence and educational tests yet published, with detailed information regarding each.

2. *Educational tests.* Scientific tests of subject matter, most of which have not had sufficiently wide use to be called standardized, are now available for most of the subjects offered in the high school. Many of these tests represent only crude beginnings of what promise to become valuable instruments for testing the results of instruction. So rapid has been the progress in this field that some of the best educational tests

have not yet been published for general use and are not included in any available lists.

**Tests for prognosis or diagnosis.** What may be described as a functional purpose of some of the tests included in the classification just presented (especially in the group of educational tests) is their use for prognosis of success or failure in certain subjects or groups of subjects, and for diagnosis of specific difficulties of individuals or groups or of specific defects or excellences in instruction. Certain tests have been claimed to have value for prognosis of ability in the study of foreign languages, mathematics, the mechanical arts, and some other fields, but the validity of some of them for these purposes is seriously open to question. In the matter of diagnosis, some tests are of very great value, especially in the more mechanical aspects of grammar and forms of expression in English and foreign languages and in the detailed skills employed in mathematics. These tests are peculiarly valuable for supervision, as they reveal clearly individual and specific weaknesses of pupils or teachers and clearly point the way to the need, if not the method, of improvement.

**Standards for tests.** It is not the purpose of this chapter to enter into a detailed discussion of the methods by which scientific tests are derived or of the statistical treatment of the results. There is an extensive literature dealing with these subjects, and high-school principals through their reading and through courses in professional schools are rapidly becoming familiar with the theory and technique of testing. It is here intended only to present a practical program which the principal may apply to the improvement of instruction in his school.

The following excellent summary of the standards of a good test for high-school use is taken from Miller's treatment of the use of intelligence tests in high schools, which forms a part of the yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education already referred to.

1. The test should differentiate. It should be sufficiently difficult to test the most capable pupil and easy enough to permit the least capable pupil to do something with it. In brief, the results of the test should contain neither zero nor perfect scores.

2. It should possess a high coefficient of reliability. The coefficient of correlation between two applications of the test should be above + 0.80. The higher the coefficient of reliability, the better.

3. It should give a coefficient of correlation of + 0.50 or higher with average school marks and with the estimate of intelligence of pupils by teachers. In applying this criterion it should be kept in mind that unreliable marks and poor judgment of teachers may be factors in lowering the correlation.

4. The instructions for giving the test should be simple and direct. The technique of giving the test should not be complex.

5. The directions to the pupil should be such as to insure a clear understanding of what is to be done in the test. Ample fore-exercises aid in obtaining a clear understanding by the pupil.

6. The test should be so constructed as to make possible rapid objective scoring.

7. It is convenient to have the time needed for giving the test limited to a single high-school period of forty minutes.

8. It is not necessary to call attention of administrators to the fact that cost is one criterion that should not be overlooked.

**The use of intelligence tests.** Whether a school enrolls fifty or two thousand, group intelligence tests should be given to all. In case no such tests have ever been given in the school it is best to begin with the lowest class, which should be tested early in the year. It may be wise to limit the testing to the entering class or, at most, to the pupils of the first and second years. There is no need of repeating the testing process in subsequent years; for while the individual scores would differ from year to year, the relative positions of pupils in their groups would not change materially.

It is better to use a battery of several tests to provide for the inadequacy of a single test, due either to inherent qualities of the test itself or to accidental factors affecting the pupil. While it is true that no one by accident will secure a high score in a single test, individual pupils of good ability may for



some cause fail in a single attempt to reveal their real ability. Various tests may be used to constitute a suitable battery. A successful combination has been found to be Miller's Mental-Ability Test, Terman's Group Test of Mental Ability, and Otis's Self-Administering Tests of Mental Ability. It will be found that most pupils will take the same relative position in their scores in the three tests, but there will be a few who will show a marked variation in their scores in the different tests.

If by reason of expense or for other cause it is impossible to give three tests, two will do, or even one, if in the use of the results in classification or otherwise an adequate provision is made for remedying the mistakes that will result. Such provision will need to be made in any case, but the undertaking is too serious not to remove all possible hindrances to success.

The scores in these tests furnish the gross material with which to proceed to the next step. The combined scores in the different tests, with allowance in the cases of the few where scores are erratic, furnish a basis for arranging the pupils in order of ability. Great refinement in computing for each one an index of ability or an attempt to equate the scores in terms of the Intelligence Quotient (I. Q.) is impossible or at least unnecessary. At most it is only necessary to know that a certain pupil ranks in the first, second, or third group of his class in mental ability as revealed by the test given.

First-year pupils should be divided into two or three groups of approximately equal ability according to the size of the school. In larger schools it is possible to arrange them on a larger number of levels, though it is doubtful whether this is better than to have two or more groups of corresponding ability. In the smallest schools whatever variation is possible in the treatment of pupils of differing abilities will have to be provided for in a single group.

For assigning pupils to segregated groups some schools use only the results of the tests. This is not enough, for it is well

known that some pupils with lower scores will succeed better in actual class work than others who rate much higher in the tests. This simply means that there are certain factors affecting the ability to do school work which are not brought out in tests of intelligence. Teachers' estimates of the ability of pupils to meet the requirements of the classroom, secured from special reports or from the school records of achievement, should be taken into account in placing those pupils whose scores in the intelligence tests fall below these estimates. The case of the pupil with high score in the tests whose record for classroom achievement would place him in a lower section is not to be dealt with in the same way. He should be made the subject of special study in order to ascertain the cause and to effect the needed remedy, and only as a last resort should he be placed in a section of lower mental ability. In the cases of marked variation between ability and achievement, individual tests should be given and every means possible employed to determine the reason of the variation. The careful diagnosis of these cases may reveal much of value outside the help which results for the particular individual in hand.

It should always be possible to transfer a pupil to a higher or lower section whenever it becomes certain that he will profit by the change. It is best (as was pointed out in the chapter on the schedule) to have sections representing the entire range of abilities at the same period, so that a transfer may be made at any time in one subject without otherwise disarranging the pupil's schedule. This is, of course, impossible in schools whose teaching staff is too small to provide as many teachers as there are segregated sections in each subject.

In some schools the difficulties of schedule-making have caused the abandonment of segregation of sections in all but the first-year classes. It must be granted that these difficulties increase as the constants are replaced by variables in the curriculum. If the rates of progress in the different sec-

tions vary as much as may be reasonably expected, considerable confusion and loss must result if pupils are later thrown together indiscriminately in subjects in which they have previously been segregated. In the junior high school segregation should be maintained at least through two years. In the differentiated courses of the senior high school it is not so necessary, and except in the lower classes there are not likely to be enough pupils in the separate courses to make segregation feasible.

The objections which have been raised to segregation have been largely based on theoretical grounds which experience has proved were not well founded. It was feared that pupils assigned to slower groups would feel the stigma of what they would regard as a recognition of inferiority. The fact is that in the ordinary chance grouping pupils have been more often impressed with their inability to keep the pace set by their brighter fellows, and have complacently accepted failure as inevitable or have tried by devious methods to avoid it. In the segregated groups, when the instruction is adapted to their capacities, pupils have proved to be happier and have substituted the habit of success for that of failure. Reports of actual experience show that the percentage of failures has been greatly reduced. The claim that slower pupils need the stimulus which comes from the presence of the more rapid has not proved sound. In any segregated group there are sufficient differences to provide this stimulus, and the effectiveness of a pace-maker is lost if he is too far ahead. There is also a very real stimulus in the opportunity for transfer to a more rapid group, and a corresponding negative incentive in the possibility of transfer to a slower section. The attempt to conceal the basis on which the sections are arranged is unsuccessful, for no one is deceived; it is also unnecessary, for no one greatly cares. Neither pupils nor their parents have often raised objections, for the plan, when well administered and thoroughly understood, is obviously to the advantage of all.

Objection is raised on what may seem more fundamental grounds, that the use of tests for purposes of segregation and guidance is contrary to the spirit of real democracy. The adherents of this position have scored some advantage by the resounding phrase "educational determinism," which they apply with sinister purpose to the testing movement. One of the basic claims of democracy is, not that men are equal — for no one holds that they are — but that because they are different each is entitled to the fullest possible development of his innate capacities. It is the duty of the school to discover what are the capacities of each pupil and to develop these in the direction of his most probable success. We shall be unwise, however, if we fail to see the danger of relying too confidently upon the instruments which we employ and upon our ability to guide pupils in their choices.

The giving of tests and the segregation of groups, however wisely administered, do not by themselves justify the procedure. If the plan is to be successful, close supervision of both subject matter and methods of instruction is necessary. The average teacher, accustomed by experience to cover what are regarded as the requirements of the course, finds it hard not to attempt the same amount of work in each section. Teachers must be helped to see the difference between teaching a course and teaching a class. The principal and the teachers must at the beginning of the year estimate the amount of work which each section may be expected to accomplish, and as they proceed they should make such changes as the progress of each group makes necessary or desirable. Whether a section is able to accomplish more or less than the normal amount of work is not of prime importance. It is possible to adapt the machinery of promotion to these varieties of achievement. What is of great importance is that each group should do as much as it can. Supervision must also extend to the methods of teaching, and here also it is difficult for the average teacher to adjust her methods nicely to the

capacities of the different groups. In the assignment of teachers great care should be taken, especially in the case of the slower groups, where the most skillful teaching is required.

For the school which is too small to provide for segregated sections, and for unsegregated classes in any school, it is more difficult to adjust the work to the differences in abilities of pupils. The difficulty in the smaller schools is increased by the fact that the teachers have usually had less experience and professional training. The principal, however, should undertake through supervision to help his teachers to recognize the need and to discover the methods best adapted to the situation. The plan employed for several years in the University of Chicago High School and described by Morrison in the articles in the *School Review* for 1921 is suggestive. The goal is complete mastery, and the method is succinctly described in the expression "Teach, test, and teach again." Under this plan a test is given as soon as a unit of work is completed. Those pupils who in this test show mastery are given special assignments carefully prepared, and the others receive additional instruction for as many days as are required for the entire group to complete the work satisfactorily.

**The purpose of educational tests.** We shall include under the designation of educational tests all those used for testing achievement in subject matter in the various subjects of the curriculum. Here, then, will be included not only those tests intended for use in different schools, whether or not their use has been sufficient to justify the term "standardized," but also the type of examination which up to this time has been customary in practically all schools.

The purposes of educational tests, considered from the point of view (1) of the teacher and the school administrator, (2) of the pupil, may be stated as follows:

1. To determine the degree of mastery of the subject —
  - a. As a partial basis of promotion of the pupil.
  - b. As evidence of the quality of instruction.



2. To serve as an incentive to the pupil —
  - a. To a complete mastery of the essential facts and processes.
  - b. To a systematic organization of the field covered by the examination.

The purposes are far broader than are usually in the minds of teachers, who have treated examinations almost wholly as a means of determining pupils' marks. In many schools mechanical systems determine the weight which is to be given to examinations in determining semester marks, whereas no supervision is given to the preparation of the papers nor to the methods of reading and rating of individual teachers. The effect has been an exaggerated and perverted idea of the purpose of tests in the minds of both teachers and pupils, who have come to regard the passing of an examination as an end in itself and often the most important end of instruction. The examination properly has weight in determining the semester mark, but this should be subordinated to its more important uses as an instrument of instruction and supervision.

Subject-matter tests may be used to measure the progress of pupils or groups at convenient intervals or for comparing the progress of different groups in the same subject. They may serve as means of comparison between the work of different teachers within a school or with the work of other schools. Norms may be established in any school which, if careful records are kept, will serve to determine progress or improvement from year to year. A few subject-matter tests have been used widely enough to give fairly reliable norms for comparing the work of different schools. These norms are too low for a school to derive any satisfaction from its results unless they are considerably above the standard norms now published in connection with the tests. Subject-matter tests may also help in determining reasonable standards of accomplishment in different grades and in the different levels of ability of segregated sections.

Subject-matter tests which diagnose specific difficulties are very useful in supervision. A few of these are available, and only a little ingenuity is required for teachers to devise such tests for their own use. One of the best of these is Briggs's English Form Test, in which seven common errors are presented in five recurring cycles in sentences of increasing difficulty. By this test it may be easily discovered what errors are peculiar to individual pupils or to an entire class. The results clearly indicate in what respects individuals need special attention as well as what should be emphasized in the instruction of an entire class.

The ability to read effectively is perhaps the most important single factor in success in those subjects which require the use of books. A constructive program of supervision should include a test of silent reading. The high-school teacher cannot assume that the significant differences which will be discovered are incapable of remedy, or that the responsibility is met when she lays the fault to the teaching of the elementary school. Poor reading habits can be discovered and to a considerable extent can be improved in the high school. Such a test as the Haggerty Reading Examination is easily given and scored. Considerable experimental work has been done in improving reading defects, and there is a growing literature on the subject.

**Form and content of educational tests.** 1. *Mechanical form.* In its mechanical form the examination should be pleasing to the eye, clearly printed, and well spaced to avoid unnecessary confusion on the part of the pupil.

2. *Form of questions.* The questions should be definite, clearly worded, and capable of but one interpretation. Questions of fact should be so framed that they may be answered in the fewest possible words. Completion, selection, and true-and-false tests afford means of covering a wide field in a limited time, and the papers can be quickly and accurately scored; there is also evidence tending to show that there is

close correlation between the results and those secured from tests of power to apply. Teachers, however, naturally feel that these tests do not indicate the greater importance which should be given in the classroom to the organization of material and to its application to real problems. The exclusive use of true and false statements and similar devices has been found to give a wrong impression to pupils also, leading them in their daily study and, more particularly, in their preparation for an impending examination to place undue emphasis upon information. These devices should be regarded as serving a legitimate but limited purpose.

Since the final aim of instruction is ability to use in appropriate situations the facts and processes which are taught, the examination should give greater weight to, and should concern itself chiefly with, questions requiring thoughtful application. An examination paper calling only for information is much easier to set than one composed of thought questions, and the papers returned can be marked more rapidly. It is possible, however, to frame questions which will test the pupil's memory of exact and important facts in their application to problems appropriate to the subject. The difficulty of scoring exactly the topical, or essay, type of answer may be obviated to some extent by care in wording the questions so that they shall not be too general.

3. *Scope of the examination.* The examination should be comprehensive in scope and well proportioned. It should reveal the emphasis and the relative values which have determined the instruction of the course. In a well-known school the examination papers in history contained the general direction "Give all dates except on map questions." From this it is properly to be inferred that all dates contained in the textbook or introduced in class discussion for a twelve-week term are regarded of equal importance. Questions about unimportant matters to which little attention has been given should not be found in the examination. A pupil should sit

down with full confidence that the regular and consistent performance of a term's work assures the passing of the examination without the need of cramming into his head a mass of details in preparation for an inquisitorial ordeal.

4. *Number of questions.* The number of questions which can be answered in a given time varies widely with individual pupils. Both accuracy and speed are valuable qualities to be cultivated. To measure these it is desirable that all pupils should begin and stop work at the same time. This makes necessary a larger number of questions than can be answered by any individual pupil. To this form of examination the objection may be raised that it is likely to cause discouragement to the slower pupil and to lead to the sacrifice of accuracy to speed. This objection may be met by having pupils understand that greater value in rating will be given to the quality of the answers than to the quantity. A certain point in the examination should be fixed as the minimum of satisfactory achievement.

5. *Arrangement of the examination.* In order that the examination may cover the field in a comprehensive manner for each pupil, the questions required of all as a minimum should be representative of the entire field. These questions may come in order at the beginning of the paper or they may be distributed throughout the paper and designated by number. The former method is less liable to confusion. It is a good plan to begin with a relatively easy question, to be followed with others of increasing difficulty. It should be observed that teachers are unable to determine with exactness in advance the relative difficulty which pupils will find in answering questions set. In the required portion of the examination pupils should answer each question in order; from the remaining questions they may be allowed to select at will.

**The administration of educational tests.** If educational tests are to serve as instruments of instruction and not merely as means for determining school marks, it is evident

that all pupils should take them. For purposes of supervision and the resulting improvement of instruction through a study of the progress of individuals and groups and of the effectiveness of individual teachers or of different methods, it is necessary that all pupils should take them. There is no justification for the practice of exempting from final examination pupils whose marks are above a certain arbitrary figure. This practice (to be found in many schools) makes the examination a penalty for poor work, whether due to lack of ability or to lack of effort. As a penalty thus indiscriminately applied, there is no sufficient justification for examinations, particularly in view of the lack of uniformity in marking which has been shown to exist. Although the distribution of examination marks usually conforms pretty closely to the teacher's estimate of pupils' achievements, there are usually found a few pupils whose mastery of a subject, as revealed by the results of an examination, is considerably more or less than was expected.

Another equally vicious conception, already referred to, makes the passing of an examination the principal end to be sought. This sometimes arises from assigning too high a value to the examination mark. In some schools the examination is weighted 50 per cent, and there are even cases in which the examination mark alone determines promotion. Such heavy weighting of the examination is usually accompanied by the equally pernicious system of make-up examinations, by which a pupil who fails is given a second chance or even an indefinite number of chances to try again, until by cramming or by luck he finally succeeds in leaping the hurdle. The extent to which school work can be perverted through a wrong conception of the purpose of the examination almost passes belief. This is most marked in schools preparing candidates for college-entrance examinations, in which pupils are frequently given credit for all entrance examinations passed, whether the corresponding courses were satisfactorily completed or not. The



writer was in close contact with a school in which the excellent work in some subjects frequently enabled pupils at the end of a year and a half to pass college examinations intended to cover the work of two years. The examination over, these pupils immediately dropped the course and were given credit for the work of two years. The end of education was secured — the examination was passed.

**Preparation of examination papers.** To secure reasonable uniformity in aim and method and to eliminate undesirable emphasis by individual instructors on their particular hobbies, examination papers should represent the combined judgment of all the members of a department. A good method of procedure is to assign the preparation of specific papers to different members of the department, subject to the criticism and final approval of the group. Besides the probable improvement in the quality of the examination papers, there is an additional gain in the better understanding and greater unity in aims and methods of instruction that will be secured.

**The conduct of examinations.** It is unfortunate that for a week or even more the orderly routine in many schools is set aside for the quarterly or semester examinations, and that during this period a state of more or less hectic excitement pervades the school. It is difficult to reconcile this with the conception of the examination as an instrument of instruction in a well-ordered course. This situation may be relieved by the use of frequent tests at whatever times the progress of classes makes convenient and by lessening the importance usually attached to final examinations in arriving at pupils' marks. If, however, the results of examinations are to be comparable for purposes of supervision, it is necessary that they be given under identical conditions. As this will involve giving the same examinations to different sections which have covered the same ground, some interruption of the ordinary schedule must be provided for. It is probably best to arrange for examinations by departments, with all the exami-

nations in each scheduled at the same time. It is not necessary, however, that these examinations extend over more than one hour each, and if the pupils do not regard them as an ordeal for which special preparation is required, several could be taken in one day. It may be said in general that examinations should be conducted with the least possible disarrangement of ordinary procedure.

Reference should be made to the control of pupils in examinations. Cheating in examination has rightly been considered a serious offense. Attempts to prevent this range all the way from rigid supervision by teachers to placing pupils entirely on their honor, neither of which has proved altogether successful. If pupils and teachers can be brought to think of examinations more rationally, as they may, there will be little (if any) more incentive to cheat in examination than in any other class period. The seating of pupils and other conditions should be so arranged that there is little opportunity for cheating. It is possible, also, to secure such class or school morale as will reduce to a minimum any tendency to dishonest practices. If teachers are expected to supervise examinations, as is usually the case, this supervision should be alert and continuous though not obtrusive, in order that its very laxness may not furnish temptation to the weak pupil or incentive to the adventurous.

**Scoring examination papers.** With the type of examination described in the preceding paragraphs it is obviously impossible to affix a definite value to each question on the scale of marks usually employed. Definite values may be assigned to that portion of the paper which is required of all, and a passing mark fixed. Values may also be assigned to the other questions for the purpose of arriving at a final rating for those above the passing mark. These values are not absolute but relative. The total marks of a class should resemble in distribution the normal curve of frequency. The final marks of those above passing would be scaled to correspond to the

distance between the passing mark and the upper limit of the system of marks employed.

As in the preparation of examinations, it is desirable, wherever this is feasible, to have the papers read and scored by all the members of a department. By assigning the reading of different questions to different instructors, variations in standards of individuals (often very great) are equalized, and the results are more nearly comparable. The author's experience warrants the statement that this method does not take more of the individual teacher's time.

**Summary.** The proper purpose of all school testing is the improvement of instruction. The principal should be sufficiently familiar with the available tests and the methods of their use to lay out a comprehensive program of testing for a period of years. It is important that the tests should be given under uniform conditions, and that the results should be so recorded that valid comparisons may be made to determine progress. Experiments in the use of different types of material or of different methods of instruction can thus be subjected to objective tests.

Proper consideration of the needs of the individual pupil requires as accurate knowledge as possible of his mental ability. The classification of pupils and their treatment in the groups in which they fall should depend largely upon their individual abilities, though other factors often need to be taken into account. The best administration allows the greatest flexibility and is most responsive to individual differences in pupils.

Subject-matter tests or examinations should be regarded as instruments of instruction and should reflect and round out the regular work of the classroom. They should be so framed as not to require or reward eleventh-hour cramming of information by pupils, but rather the organization of the materials of a course to show a mastery of its essential content.

## PROBLEMS AND QUESTIONS

1. Name some diagnostic test and describe its special features.
2. What is meant by a coefficient of reliability?
3. How may adequate provision be made against possible mistakes in classification of pupils on the basis of results of group tests?
4. What are some of the causes that might account for poor work of a pupil whose test score is high?
5. What difficulties occur to you in the application of the Morrison plan of complete learning?
6. What additional reasons can you give for not exempting individual pupils from examinations?
7. What dangers are possible in the departmental preparation of examinations?
8. Some schools have no semester examinations. Comment on this critically.
9. Outline a testing program for the improvement of instruction to cover a period of two years in a school of five hundred pupils.

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## INDEX

- Ability grouping, 382-387
- Academy, 14, 15
- Achievement as basis for marks, 285-287
- Achievement quotient, 287-288
- Admission to college, requirements for, 43-48; methods of securing, 48-61; correlations of college records with various means of determining fitness for, 54; character qualifications of students for, 61
- Advisers, group, 95; club, 157
- Æsthetic qualities in school plant, 216, 217
- Agencies, teachers', 73, 74
- Ages, distribution of pupils by, 111, 112
- Aims, of secondary education, 14-25; of discipline, 129, 130
- Anger, punishment inflicted in, 140
- Apology, forced as punishment, 143
- Arista League, 167
- Assembly, 162-164; in schedule-making, 236
- Assistant principal, 91, 92
- Athletics, 164-166; dishonesty in, 177-180
- Attendance, blank forms for, 253-258; record of, 265
- Bagley, on corporal punishment, 141
- Ben Blewett High School, homogeneous grouping, 123
- Big Brother and Big Sister Day, 233, 234
- Blank forms and records, purpose of, 247; number and character of, 247, 248; registration, 249, 250; for schedule of recitations, 250-253; attendance, 253-258; for teachers' reports, 258-262; permanent-record, 262-266, 268-269; health, 266; for reports to parents, 266-273; vocation, 273-275; for supplies and equipment, 275; for reports to superintendent, 275-276; miscellaneous devices for, 276-277
- Block method of schedule-making, 237
- Board of education, principal's relation to, 2, 6, 7
- Books, receipts, 275; for library, 305-308
- Boyce, A. C., on the rating and promotion of teachers, 76-78
- Brainard, Jessie F., library council, 311-312
- Breed, on results of supervised study, 374, 375
- Breslich, on supervised study, 365, 371-373
- Briggs, The Junior High School, advantages claimed, 33; objections urged by, 34; English Form Test, 389
- Building projects, 210, 211
- Buildings and grounds, standards for, 211, 212
- Cabinet, principal's, 94-95
- Case method, in moral training, 189-194; personal responsibility, 189; property rights, 190, 191; sportsmanship, 191, 193; regard for truth, 193, 194; cleanness of speech, 194
- Character qualifications of students admitted to college, 61
- Checking list for supervision, 345-357
- Chicago, University of, requirements for admission, 48; restrictions on certificate for admission, 60; grade points, 297; varying credit for admission, 300
- Chicago, University of, High School, elimination of waste, 27-32; fraternities in, 156; athletics in, 165, 166; social parties, 171, 172; survey of honesty, 185-187; parents' association, 203, 204; schedule-making, 241, 242; variation of marks in, 279-281; failures in, 291, 292; varying credit in, 298-301;



- library equipment, 309; library as study hall, 317; supervised study, 365, 371-373; study helps, 369, 370
- Classrooms, available in schedule-making, 234
- Cleaning school buildings, 220-222
- Cleanness of speech, 194
- Clubs, committees for, 157; formation of new, 153; place of meetings, 158; time of meetings, 158
- Coeducation, 125-126
- College and high school, administrative relationship, 42-43; admission requirements, 43-48; methods of admission, 48-61; reports of college work, 61-62
- College Entrance Examination Board, organization and scope, 65-66
- Columbia University, the psychological examination, 52-55; extra credit, 297
- Committees, faculty, 96, 97; for extra-classroom activities, 157
- Community, principal's relations to, 198-209
- Connor, W. L., scale for rating teachers, 82, 83
- Continuity in curriculum, 331
- Continuous development, 116, 117
- Coördination, lack of, between elementary and high schools, 27; elimination of waste by closer, 27-32
- Corporal punishment, 140, 141
- Corrective methods of discipline, 139-148; undesirable methods, 140-144; desirable methods, 145-148
- Council, school, 168, 169; library, 311, 312
- Counts, distribution of high-school graduates, 114, 115
- Credit for quality, 297-301
- Cubberley, on the school janitor, 218; principles governing relations between principal and janitor, 223
- Cum Laude* Society, 167
- Curricula and courses of study, principal's problem, 7-8, 325-328; content, 322-324; organization of material, 324-325; principles governing curriculum, 328-332; junior high school, 332-333; senior high school, 333-334; four-year high school, 334, 335; group-sequence organization, 334, 336
- Dancing, 170, 171
- Dartmouth College, admission requirements, 60
- Dean of girls, 92, 93
- Delegation of administrative duties, 10-11
- Demerits as punishment, 144
- Departmental organization, 93-95
- Deprivation, of marks as punishment, 143-144; of privileges as punishment, 146
- Detention as punishment, 142
- Development, theories of, 115-118
- DeWitt Clinton High School, rotating schedule, 241
- Diagnosis tests, 381
- Disciplinary control, 128-149; aims, 129-130; underlying principles, 130-134; positive methods, 134-139; corrective methods, 139-148
- Discipline, corrective methods, 139-148; principles of, 139; undesirable methods, 140-145; punishment in anger, 140; corporal punishment, 140-141; threats, 141; detention, 142; sarcasm or ridicule, 142-143; forced apology, 143; extra tasks, 143; deprivation of marks, 143-144; demerits, 144; desirable methods, 145-148; use of group judgment, 145-146; deprivation of privileges, 146; suspension and expulsion, 147; reports to parents, 147-148
- Discussion clubs, 169
- Dishonesty, in athletics, 178-180; in relation of pupil and teacher, 180
- Distribution of marks, 288-292
- Distribution of pupils, by sex, 109-110; by grades, 110-111; by ages, 111-112
- Dynes, study of relation of age and graduation in Iowa City High School, 111-112
- Educational tests, 380; purpose, 387-389; form and content, 389-391; administration, 391-393; preparation, 393; conduct, 393-394; scoring, 394-395
- Election blank, 251
- Elementary school and the high school, 26-41
- Elimination, 112-114
- Elliott, score card of, for rating teachers, 78

- English schools and social life, 152-154  
 Enrollment, secondary-school, 106-109  
 Equipment, library, 305-309  
 Ethical character, training in, 174-197  
 Evenden, on salaries of high-school teachers, 71, 72  
 Examination method of admission to college, 49-50; comprehensive examination, 50-52; psychological examination, 52-55  
 Examinations. *See* Educational tests  
 Exploration, 330, 331  
 Expulsion as punishment, 147  
 Extra tasks as punishment, 143  
 Extra-classroom activities, 150-173; principles of organization, 154-157; policies, 157-161; forms of activities, 161-171  
 Faculty. *See* Teaching staff  
 Faculty meetings, 97-104  
 Father's Association of Frankford High School, 204  
 Fatigue, factor in schedule-making, 236  
 Financial control of extra-classroom activities, 159, 160  
 Frankford High School, Philadelphia Father's Association of, 204  
 Fraternities, 152, 155-157  
 Free margin in college admission, 48  
 Grades, distribution of pupils by, 110-112  
 Graduates of secondary school, 114-115  
 Grand Rapids High School, house organization, 153  
 Group judgment in discipline, 145-146  
 Hackensack, N. J., High School, reports to parents, 272  
 Hall, theory of saltatory development, 115-118  
 Hartwell, preliminary preparations by, for junior high schools in Buffalo, N.Y., 36-37  
 Harvard College, the comprehensive examination, 50-52; weakness of examination method of admission, 58  
 Health, as an aim, 18-19; in planning and maintaining school plant, 213; record of, 266  
 Heating and ventilation, 222  
 Historical development of secondary school, 14-16  
 Homogeneous grouping, 122-123; 382-387  
 Honesty, survey of, 185-187  
 Honor societies, 167-169  
 Honors, award of, 160-161  
 Horace Mann School, faculty committee report, 101; qualities of pupils, 261-262  
 House, the, a unit of social control, 153-154  
 Illinois, University of, report of, to high schools, 61-62  
 Individual differences, 119; physical, 119-121; mental, 121-123; social, 123-126; discipline in relation to, 139, 144; provisions for, in curriculum, 331-332  
 Inglis, data of; statistics of secondary schools, 107; distribution of high-school graduates, 114-115; variation in height, 119-120  
 Instruction, principal's duty toward, 8-9; library, 313-314; improvement of, *see* Supervision of instruction  
 Integration, 329-330  
 Intelligence tests, 380; use of, 382-387  
 Janitor, service of, 217-227; employment of, 218-219; instruction of, 219-220; relations of, with principal, 222-223; standards for service of, 223-227  
 Journals for teachers, 307, 308  
 Junior college, 66, 67  
 Junior high school, 32-40; aims, 32-33; advantages claimed, 33; objections urged against, 34; procedure of organization, 35-37; dangers in, 37-40; curriculum, 332-333; training in habits of study, 362-363  
 King, on theory of continuous development, 117  
 Laboratory periods in schedule-making, 235  
 Lambert, on effect on bacteria of oiling floors, 221

- Leisure, worthy use of, as an aim, 22-24
- Librarian, school, requirements for, in state of New York, 309-310
- Library, the high-school, 303-320; equipment, 305; books, 305-308; miscellaneous equipment, 308-309; organization and control, 309-312; use of, 312-313; instruction regarding, 313-314; teaching staff, 314-315; a social center, 315-316; as a study hall, 316-317; financial support, 317-318; public library and the school, 318-319
- Lincoln, Nebraska, High School, fraternities in, 156-157
- Logasa, Hannah, on the library study hall, 317, 368-369
- Maintenance of school plant, 217
- Manners, manual of, 135-137
- Marking system, 279-302; variability of marks, 279-282; purpose of marks, 282; what marks represent, 282-287; achievement quotient, 287-288; distribution of marks, 288-292; marking scale, 292-295; assignment of marks, 295-296; varying credit, 297-301
- Marks. *See* Marking system
- Meetings, teachers'. *See* Faculty meetings
- Miller, on standards for tests, 381-382; mental-ability test, 383
- Minneapolis, rules and regulations for janitor service, 223-227
- Missouri, University of, varying credit in, 297
- Moral situation in schools, 175-180; causes of, 180-182; responsibility of the school toward, 182
- Moral training, aims of, 182-183; methods of, 183-189; case method, 189-194
- Morehouse, on outcomes of discipline, 133
- Mosaic method of schedule-making, 238
- Munhall, Pa., public library and school, 319
- National Conference Committee on Standards of Colleges and Secondary Schools, definition of unit, 45
- National Honor Society, 167
- North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, on aims and purposes of junior high school, 33; recommendations of committee on junior high schools and college entrance requirements, 38-39; definition of the unit, 46; organization, purposes, standards, 63-65; distribution of graduates of high schools of, 114-115; on supervised study, 362
- Office tickler, 276-277
- Oiling floors, 221
- Organization, of the faculty, 90-98; of extra-classroom activities, 154-157; of curriculum material, 324-325
- Otis group test, 383
- Parents, reports to, in discipline, 147-148; principal's contacts with, 198-201; associations of, 201-204; reports to, 266-273
- Parker, on distribution of marks, 293
- Participation, pupil, in school control, 137-139; in extra-classroom activities, 159
- Parties, social, 170-171
- Periods, recitation, length and number, 235
- Permanent-achievement record, 262-266
- Philadelphia, South, High School for Girls, manual of manners, 135-137
- Plant, the school, 210-229
- Politics and the principal, 206
- Positive methods of discipline, 134-139
- Principal, the, 1-13; responsible leader of the school, 2-7; relation of, to superintendent and school board, 6-7; responsible for all activities of school, 7-10, 157; training and selection of, 74-76; relation of, to community, 198-208; responsibility for school plant, 210-228; relations with janitor, 222-223; and schedule of recitations, 230-232
- Privileges, to older pupils, 137; . deprivation of, as discipline, 146
- Pro Merito* Society, 167
- Prognosis tests, 381
- Promotion of teachers, 76-84

- Property rights, 175-177, 190-191
- Psychological examination for admission to college, 52-55
- Public library and the school, 318-319
- Publicity, 206-207
- Pupils, high-school, 106-127; enrollment, 106-109; distribution of, by sex, 109-110; distribution of, by grades, 110-111; distribution of, by ages, 111-112; elimination, 112-114; completing secondary school, 114-115; characteristics, 115-117; development, 117-118; individual differences, 119-126; physical differences, 119-121; mental differences, 121-123; social differences, 123-126
- Qualities of pupils, reports of, 259-262; record of, 264
- Quick, on advice to young teachers, 128
- Rating of teachers, 76-84
- Registration card, 249-250
- Reports, teachers', 258-262
- Responsibility, training in personal, 189-190
- Ridicule, use of, 142-143
- Ross, on state control of standardization of high schools, 57
- Rugby, standards of sportsmanship in, 152
- Rugg, H. O., score card of, for rating teachers, 78-81
- Salaries of secondary-school teachers, 71-72
- Saltatory development, 115-118
- Sarcasm as punishment, 142-143
- Scale of marks, 292-295
- Schedule of recitations, 230-245; preliminary steps, 232-234; determining factors, 234-236; block method, 237-238; mosaic method, 238; individual pupil schedule, 238-243; blank forms, 250-253
- Score cards for rating teachers, 78-84
- Scrapbook, 277
- Selection, of teachers, 72-74; of principals, 74-76
- Self-government, pupil, 137-139
- Senior high-school curriculum, 333-334
- Sequences in curriculum, 331, 334, 336
- Service bureaus in colleges and universities, 74
- Serviceability in construction and maintenance of school building, 214-216
- Sex, distribution of pupils by, 109-110; differences due to, 124-125; segregation in high school according to, 125-126
- Shop periods in schedule-making, 235
- Silent-reading test, 389
- Silver Bay School, definition of marks, 287
- Social achievement, record of, 264-265
- Social contacts of principal, 9-10, 204-206
- Social coöperation as an aim, 21-22
- Socialized recitation, 131-132
- Social-service activities, 169-170
- Staff, secondary-school, 70-85
- Standardizing organizations, 63-66; North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, 63-65; College Entrance Examination Board, 65-66
- Standards, ethical, 186-189; for tests, 381-382
- Starch, on distribution of marks, 290-291, 293, 294
- Starch and Elliott, on variability of marks, 281-282, 283
- Strayer-Engelhardt Score Card for High-School Buildings, 212
- Study hall, in schedule-making, 235; library as, 316-317; supervised study in, 368-369
- Study helps, 369-370
- Stuyvesant High School, device for schedule-making, 241
- Superintendent, principal's relation to, 2, 6-7; reports to, 275-276
- Supervised study, 360-378; administration, 361-364; methods, 364-370; results, 370-376
- Supervision of instruction, 339-359; time for, 341-342; technique of teaching necessary for, 342-343; technique of, 343-345; coöperation of teachers, 345; testing results, 346; checking list, 346-357
- Supplies and equipment, blank forms for, 275
- Suspension as punishment, 147

- Teachers, secondary-school : ages, 71; tenure, 71; training, 70-71; salaries, 71-72
- Teachers' agencies, 73-74
- Teaching staff, principal's relation to, 86-90; organization, 90-91; assistant principal, 91-92; dean of girls, 93; departmental organization, 93-95; group advisers, 95; committees, 96-97; faculty meetings, 97-104
- Technique, of teaching, 342-343; of supervision, 343-345
- Tenure of secondary-school teachers, 71
- Terman group test, 383
- Testing, in supervision, 346; and improvement of instruction, 379-396; purpose of, 379-380
- Tests, recording results, 264; types, 380-381; standards, 381-382; intelligence, 381-387; educational, 387-389; form and content, 389-391; administration, 391-393; preparation, 393; conduct, 393-394; scoring, 394-395
- Thorndike, on theory of continuous development, 116; on variation in arithmetical computation, 122; on distribution of traits, 289
- Threats in punishment, 141
- Training, of secondary-school teachers, 70-71; of principals, 74-76
- Truthfulness, training in, 193-194
- Unit, standard, 45-48
- Variability of marks, 279-282
- Ventilation, 222
- Vocation blanks, 273-274
- Vocational data, record of, 265
- Vocational training as an aim, 19-21
- Waste, elimination of, 27-32
- Wood, on correlations of college records with various means of determining fitness for college admission, 54
- Young Men's Christian Association, and social life, 150; discussion clubs, 169
- Young Women's Christian Association and social life, 150
- Youngstown, Ohio, public library and the school, 319









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